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MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY

WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

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MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION: ADDRESS OF WELCOME BY DEAN KITCHIN,

WARDEN OF DURHAM UNIVERSITY,

JANUARY 4, 1907.

I FEEL a kind of doubt as to whether, in welcoming you to hold your conference in this modern University, I should use as my vehicle of speech the ancient tongue of Englishmen, or should address you in that new-fashioned language of Dr. Zamenhof, the general tongue of Esperanto. Yet for you, ladies and gentlemen, there will be no such doubt; for it is clear that if Esperanto wins general use — and from the rapid growth of it, and from the sanity of the reformed grammar it introduces, one could easily believe that it might—we should then have no use for any such gathering as this; for the common coin of daily and unromantic communication would then have superseded all our endeavours to teach the several local languages of the European world. I do not know how it looks to others; to me it seems that Esperanto in vocabulary and grammar is a miracle of simplicity, especially when one brings to the study of it a knowledge of the chief European tongues. Enthusiasts for it proclaim that it will be the bond of union between all lands; will break down many subtle barriers; will advance among nations the Christian message of peace and goodwill.

These things may be but passing dreams; we are clearly not met to study the chances of our own demise through the triumph of a system of language which claims to make all education in existing languages comparatively unimportant.

On the other hand, we are met to confer on the right and the wrong way of making the study of existing languages, specially

French and German, a real part of modern education, not a mere by-play stuck in at chance hours in the more established and antiquated method of teaching classics, as we call them. We are met to consider what should be the best training for life, intellectual or practical; what weight we should give to grammar, as now taught; what place modern philology should hold in a comparative and historical study of tongues — a branch of knowledge which would perish were Esperanto supreme. Should we teach living languages just as if they were dead? Some people seem to think that, like pheasants, languages are not fit for consumption till they are high. Shall we still cling to the ancient and traditional way of teaching on a past system of grammatical lessons, and so leave the practical use and acquaintance of languages to chance?

Doubtless, it is very valuable for the young to learn that accuracy which the old-fashioned scholar acquires by mastering his Greek and Latin inflexions; equally good as practice in puzzles is the difficulty of disentangling constructions and meanings of sentences in the classical forms. For these things, for Ciceronian Latin or elegant Greek verse, the praise of the English world has sounded for a century past.

At any rate, one language thus treated would be enough for these important though subsidiary advantages. In that one language, which would, of course, be 'dead,' we should deal with a voice unheard, seen only in print. We have learnt only too well the old Horatian saw

> 'Segnius irritant animos demissa per aures
> Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus.'

With the learning of languages it must be the other way. The aural way of entry is far more graphic and effective than that of learning out of books: in the one the personal element is stronger, in the other the scholarly treatment is supreme; the one is the commerce of the market, the other the practice of the student and the Don. The present teaching of classics is as though no man ever spoke them; indeed, this really is, in a sense, true. I doubt whether one schoolboy in a hundred knows that there were two 'Latins' — the book form in classical manner of Cicero, and the popular form of Terence—the one the language of the law courts, and the other the common talk of the street. I don't think that any English boy believes that Latin was spoken as we English talk to one another.

The two methods, the grammatical or written and the oral, divide still our opinions between them. The French language at this moment has solved the problem by giving us a wellnigh perfect and natural system of writing and speaking. We English draw still a line between pulpit language and home talk.

The grammarian prays us to regard the teaching of language

as a means of learning how to say exactly what we think, or what we wish carefully to conceal from our neighbour. He holds us down to exact statements, and will not let us flop about in vague statements or generalities. On the other hand, the supporters of the modern system of teaching insist on the importance of getting into touch with the minds of daily life, on drawing nearer to those who speak another tongue; they hold, rightly enough, that free and clear communication of thoughts and feelings are at least as important as the knowledge of cases and tenses.

They do more: they carry the war into the grammarians' camp by boldly attacking the prevalent method of teaching grammar and language. 'You begin,' they cry, 'at the wrong end. You crowd your pupil's memory with a thousand forms of detail without teaching them how to make practical use of them; he learns his verb parrot-wise: you make no appeal to his intelligence; you do nothing to stimulate his thought. Grammar' (I can imagine them saying) 'should not come at the first outset: it should begin when a child's intellect awakes, when he can grasp the reason of things; and it should then teach, not myriads of isolated facts, as difficult to remember and as useless, when remembered, as the Kings of Israel and Judah are to the average Oxford undergraduate: your pupil should begin with the more general principles on which languages rest.'

For grammar lives side by side with logic and rhetoric. It inquires into the natural uses of language; while logic adapts language to argument and rhetoric turns it towards persuasion, so grammar deals with the construction of language. In this the last thing, not the first, is the varying growth of the leaves on the tree, the flexible way in which Nature has created the many inflexions of verb and noun.

The teaching, then, will explain the structure of the simple sentence —subject, copula, and predicate, as the logicians say. It will consider the duties of the verb, the noun, the particle; it will deal with the ways of exclamation, question, practical talk, from weather upwards; then will follow in a natural way the mastery of vocabulary, the right use of inflexions, the shorthand of phrases or words, short-cuts towards the expression of wishes and thoughts. In one word, you will advance first in a natural way, as a child learns from his nurse; and then, as powers strengthen, will give the boy glimpses of the true meaning of language, of natural or artificial arrangement of sentences; for the future teacher must ever be watchful against mere ear-knowledge, which impedes the action of the brain behind it. The old way was like working on loose sand in a desert—the new way should be like cultivating the rich soil of an active mind.

Many years ago I undertook, as a kind of holiday task, to translate into English one of the volumes of Leopold von Ranke's 'History of England,' for the Clarendon Press at Oxford. I took it with me to Denmark, where we spent a pleasant month in a house near Hamlet's grave and Ophelia's pool. The mistress of that house had been brought up in Hanover, in the daily use of the best German language. Yet, when I took to her some of the crabbed difficulties of Ranke's book, I found that underneath her life's knowledge of the language there was a complete absence of grasp of what that language meant. She could not catch the meaning of Ranke's words; time after time she failed to see what Ranke was driving at. Her German was the language of society, salutatory, complimentary—of weather, of daily food, the common coin of speech. This is the usual effect of learning by natural process. While, on the other side, they whose learning is fashioned on the dead language system understand even less of what they read. They have crawled like caterpillars over the pages of a noble tragedy, careful of the inflexions, indifferent as to the fitful play of passion or reason. Perhaps it would be most fair to say that all types of education have a tendency to close up the human intelligence, encouraging memory and damping down imagination, observation, and reasoning power. For memory is the danger of learning.

But I must stop. My duty is not to discourse of what you know better than I do, but to welcome you heartily to Durham. It is gallant of you to face our northern breezes in this winter-time; it shows your devotion to your work in life, that you have come hither to discuss and confer as to the best ways of teaching. All of us, even the most experienced, feel qualms when we think about probing the minds of our pupils, about endeavouring to rouse the sluggish English intellects to grasp at truths in all they learn; we are afraid of merely stuffing their heads full of the force-meat facts of language, so making the free motion of the mind all but impossible. How can we kindle in them an enthusiasm, a fire of love, towards the languages we teach? How overcome the impatient indifference in which the lads sit before us, thinking about nothing but their cricket bats?

Are we, let us ask, on the right lines, or still too much wedded to our traditional classical system? Can we break through the pedagogic usages of centuries? Will our important friends, the parents, stand it if we try new things? These are questions which ever recur. In discussion here you will now, I trust, find good substance, useful for future teaching. These things are fit for serious deliberation; let us sharpen our weapons, though not with the screech of a file, nor with the creation of a keen-edged knife, useful only to wound, but with the kindly sympathy of kindred spirits.

For all this the University welcomes you heartily. We trust that our grand hill of strength, crowned, as no other city in England is crowned, by a magnificant House of God, and fortified by the castle of the early Normans, now turned to academic uses, will afford you some return of pleasure, to set against a winter's journey and the self-denial of coming here to think and discuss matters connected with your teaching work, instead of sitting at home in peace and warmth, and, like Tennyson's farmer, 'thinking about nothing.'

Let us also hope that you will return after this outing refreshed, not wearied, to your heavy task of work, clearer, perhaps, in mind as to the best ways of dealing with your well-felt difficulties; glad again to be called on to influence your children in their development towards manhood or womanhood, by placing in their hands the knowledge which, perhaps more than any other thing, tends towards the friendly feeling and the goodwill of neighbouring nations. To break the barrier of language is to open sunlit doors into a larger world, with broad horizons of entrancing interest, and fields of well-won pleasure in life.

THE PLACE OF MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM.*

THE late Archbishop Tait was once asked whether he did not think that Church affairs were in a critical condition. He replied humorously that he could never remember the time when they had not been critical. I suppose that we are always apt to focus existing difficulties, and to believe that they are of a critical kind. Still, with all due caution, I think that we are justified in considering the present condition of secondary education to be somewhat critical. There is a good deal of dissatisfaction abroad—dissatisfaction both deep and wide. Moreover, there appears to be a general consensus of feeling among educators that education is in urgent need of simplification. The plain fact has been ignored in recent educational reforms that, if you want to pack a bag, you can put into it a few big things or a good many small ones; but you cannot put into it a large number of big things. Something can be done by rearrangement; but, even so, the process has been apt to resemble the packing of the bag by the White Knight in *Through the Looking Glass*. You will remember that the Knight saw in Alice's hand a dish; he asked what it was for, and the answer was that it was meant for plum cake. The Knight replied that it had better go into the bag, because it would come in handy if they encountered a plum

* Presidential Address to the Modern Language Association, Durham, January 4.

cake in their travels. The operation was still further complicated by the fact that the bag was already nearly full of fire-irons and carrots, and that the Knight fell into the bag himself in the course of packing it.

Well, the educational bag is already full of inconsequent objects, things of great intrinsic value; and the attempt has been constantly made to introduce other useful materials into it, to provide for all sorts of contingencies; moreover, the reformer has, in one or two notable instances, fallen in himself head downwards, and this has not tended to simplify matters.

The truth is, that, while every one who has tried his hand at reforming education has been convinced of the necessity of simplification, most of the attempts at suggesting a cure have been made by enthusiasts for a particular subject, and each enthusiast has always claimed that, whatever is to be put in, room must be found for his own particular subject, with the result that half the contents of the bag protrude awkwardly from the orifice and the rest are still scattered about the room. What we want is some correlation, some co-ordination; and it appears to me that the only solution is for educational reformers to agree upon some simple core of education which is well within the holding capacity of the average mind; and that then room should be found in the receptacle, not for every other subject of importance, but for a selection of subjects suited to the particular mind in question.

One cannot always be reverting to first principles in such an address as this, or one becomes like the preacher who always began his sermons with the Creation and the Fall; but, at the same time, though I do not mean here to try and state what the objection of education is, I desire to define clearly what I believe is the only hopeful and fruitful method. The disaster which results from the overcrowded curriculum is that the mind of the pupil becomes merely the bucket which is let down into the well; what we really ought to aim at is to stimulate a child's imagination and reflection in such a way that it becomes trained to co-operate, reasonably and independently, with the teacher, and reacts on its material. This is a large philosophical formula, an elaborate description of what is really a very simple process. In the congested curriculum the learner just does as he is told, with the cheerful submissiveness of immaturity; and one of the reasons why the minds of the younger generation tend to prolong their immaturity longer, I am quite sure, than used to be the case is that mental independence is not even aimed at in our present system. What one ought to desire is that the learner's mind should sympathize with the process, should have some sort of an inkling of what is going on; should not have its thinking done for it, but should be encouraged to draw its own con-

clusions. This is only possible when some sort of a mastery is achieved in a subject; when the mind, instead of scrambling and slipping among the data, has the data more or less firmly in its grasp. And thus the objections which I feel to the present system—to the simultaneous acquisition, on a minute and philosophical method, of classical languages—are twofold. I think that the material, in the first place, is inadequate, because the ancient literatures do not provide sufficient imaginative stimulus in the earlier stages; and, secondly, the method is unsatisfactory, because an erudite knowledge of forms and usages is insisted upon, instead of a practical and working knowledge of them. When one is dealing, as the teacher for the most part has to deal, with average minds, one's aim is not, or ought not to be, to narrow the mind, or to specialize it, or to predetermine its future. Yet the average boy trained on classical lines is trained on a professional system which produces as its best fruit a crop of specialists—dons and schoolmasters, professors and men of erudition. Not only is this not a desirable ideal: it is not even a practicable one; and to submit an average intelligence to exactly the same training which develops as its perfect work the pundit and the savant seems to me to be a deplorable mistake; and here I may add that it is to me most encouraging and stimulating to find that the Warden supports this view.

I do not at all desire to belittle the results of the classical system in the past. The old humanists made of the classics the most perfect educational instrument then possible. But where it is possible for us to survey close at hand a complex social organization, an elaborate historical development, and an infinitely wide scheme of Nature interpreted by scientific discovery, the students of a past era had only the classics to work upon. It was, and could be, only a *provisional* scheme of education, and those who look to the classics now as an all-embracing treasure of culture are simply ignoring the development of the world and mistaking the means for the end. Of course, we do not want, if we can avoid it, to break too abruptly with the old: we desire to make the old run smoothly and melt into the new; but the rate of advance in such matters is not, as is often believed, a compromise. The pace must be the pace of the slowest. The most that the swift can do is to prevent things from becoming stationary. But there do come times when the retention of the old bottles endangers the expansion of the new wine; and then it becomes a duty to insist, first, upon a revision of methods, and, secondly, upon a rearrangement of material.

I have long regarded it as an incontestable fact that the retention of two dead languages in a secondary curriculum is an impossibility. Greek and Latin are difficult subjects, and if they are to be retained, they must hold the field and other

subjects must be frankly discarded. I believe myself that a thorough education in pure classics would be a better training than the diffuse smattering which is now supposed to be an *education;* but I do not think that it would be an ideal education, and I am sure that it is wholly inadequate to modern needs. When one reflects upon the vast intellectual expansion that has taken place within the last fifty years in religion, in science, in history—when one considers the immense output of modern literature, it seems to me simply grotesque to confine the attention of boys to ancient masterpieces. The old theory of classical education is a dignified ideal, but it is no longer practical. Its continuance has resulted in the most disastrous thing, from the intellectual point of view, in the world—a frank cynicism as to the usefulness of education and a loss of active faith in its benefits. I am not afraid of the word 'utilitarian.' A friend of mine told me the other day of an American educational theorist who went about everywhere delighting audiences with a lecture of which the text was: 'Culture means efficiency.' It does, in the sense that it implies and includes it. But 'culture' means a great deal more than that, and when you have arrived at efficiency you have not got half-way. On the other hand, a culture which does *not* include efficiency is a very invertebrate thing, and generally ends in including nothing in particular. I believe that it is the duty of educators, first, to see that parents and pupils alike are convinced of the usefulness of education; and, secondly, to see that the idealistic element is not extruded.

As our Chairman said, in his valuable and suggestive paper that appeared on the subject in the *Times* a few months ago, the key of the situation is in the hands of the Universities. A head master may point to his modern side, and say: 'There is a utilitarian education for you, if you desire it'; but the truth is that most parents of children who show any intellectual promise desire that their children should have the chance of a University education; and therefore, as long as older Universities make classical languages a *sine qua non* for the entrance, only boys who are frankly destined for commercial careers can venture to drop classics; and thus the comparative failure of modern sides, so gleefully indicated by classicists, is due to the fact that they have not had the best material to work upon. And, moreover, while there is a preference for University men as teachers, it has not been easy to get men who are really equipped for the teaching of modern languages. If once this reform could be forced upon all Universities, and if a modern language could be made an alternative for a classical language, the battle would be in our hands.

The defenders of Greek and Latin in education have, of course, plenty of effective things to say. They can point to the fact that

Latin is a splendid educational instrument, and that it forms the etymological basis of most modern languages. They can point to the splendour of Greek literature and say with Goethe that Greek is the sheath into which the dagger of the human mind fits best. But they make the disastrous mistake, which Matthew Arnold long ago pointed out, of confusing a learned and a liberal education. They handle the languages from a professorial rather than an educational point of view. In their zeal for mental discipline they send the victim to the rack rather than to the gymnasium. They keep the pupil loitering in the ante-room of grammar, never aware that he is in the presence of literature at all. They leave the average boy a sciolist in classics and an ignoramus in everything else. I have seen the process repeated over and over again. I have turned the levers of the rack a hundred times myself till I could bear it no more. The pity of it is that the ideal is a fine one, but it has no beneficial result. Just as the strategist said admiringly of a famous charge: 'It is magnificent; but it is not war,' so an old classical teacher can say regretfully of the classical system: 'It is magnificent; but it is not education.'

Let me now outline what I believe to be the central core of education of which I have spoken. There must be, I think, some religious instruction; there must be some popular scientific teaching, given by means of lectures and demonstrations. There should be a careful training in arithmetic and simple symbolical mathematics. A boy should have an acquaintance with the outlines of ancient and medieval history, and a sound knowledge of modern English and European history. It is grotesque that a boy should be acquainted with the shadowy adventures of Numa Pompilius and Timoleon, and have no sort of knowledge of Metternich, of Cavour, of Sir Robert Peel. Then there should be a sound knowledge of modern geography, because geography is the subject which forms, so to speak, a bridge between science on the one hand and history on the other. To illustrate that, let me mention the fruitful results which sprang from the friendship of Boyd Dawkins and Freeman. Freeman learnt from Boyd Dawkins the structure of England, and we all recollect how large a part 'the outcrop of basaltic rock and the sweep of chalk down' played in Freeman's view of historical and sociological conditions.

And so we come to the linguistic basis of education. The ideal would, I believe, be that a boy should learn two languages — a dead language and a living language. I am here torn between conflicting claims. I myself believe that probably the best outfit would be a real and vital knowledge of French, so that a boy could not only read it as easily as English, but express himself in it with absolute flexibility. The main reason why I would unhesitatingly

choose French from the linguistic point of view is that, with its moderate inflexions, it comes halfway between the purely synthetic Latin and the purely analytic English. I would myself draw the line here, adding to it the teaching of English, both composition and literature. I believe that this is all that can be safely put into the bag, and I believe that a boy educated on these lines would have a chance of being a well-educated man.

If it proved possible to add a further language, I should myself be inclined to add German; but I should only attempt to give a reading knowledge of it, and not attempt composition unless a boy showed linguistic aptitude. The point, I believe, to aim at is to give all boys a thorough knowledge of one language beside their own. I believe that the intellectual gymnastic at present given by means of two dead languages and one living one is a fruitless gymnastic, and only ends in mental confusion. May I tell a personal experience of my own that brought this fact home to me in a convincing fashion? I had at one time to teach a large division of big boys at Eton. They were boys of little intellectual capacity, but pathetically inclined to be industrious, and being boys who were prominent socially and athletically, anxious to keep on the right side of the authorities. They were absurdly and painfully ignorant of classics which had been sedulously taught them from their earliest years. We used to have a Greek and a Latin exercise every week. I used to take some simple rule like the rules of sequence of tenses in the dependent question. At the end of an hour they were capable of putting simple dependent questions into Greek with moderate accuracy. Later in the week came the Latin exercises. I would attempt the dependent question again, and the boys would all, or most of them, with conscious pride construct the Latin sentence on the rules of the Greek sequence. By the end of the hour the demon had been exorcised, and they could do the dependent question on the Latin method; but when we came to the Greek exercise of the following week they would do the Greek sentence by the Latin rules, and so we went on dodging backwards and forwards, the demon being cast out, and reappearing round the corner with Satanical regularity. God alone knows what tricks the imps were meanwhile playing with the French exercises.

Now it became clear to me that, instead of one subject helping another in the case of these boys, the two subjects were merely cutting each other's throats in an intestine warfare. If the boys had had one usage to master they could have done it, and they might possibly have mastered an ancient and a modern usage. But about that I have my doubts.

It may be thought that I have already sacrificed my ideal of having one dead and one living language

taught. It is true. But, from the practical point of view, the pressure in favour of retaining Latin is so strong that I would reluctantly retain it. The difficulty about Latin is that, though it is a severely logical language, and is therefore a good gymnastic, there is hardly any literature in it of a kind which appeals to boys without distinct literary gifts. For many reasons I should wish to retain Greek in preference; but one must take account of the force of public opinion; and, though I regret the extrusion of Greek, I would do my best to throw it overboard, because it happens to be the most defenceless subject and to be nearest to the bulwarks.

It must be borne in mind that hitherto I have been catering only for the average boy. There are a great many average boys, and for most of them the subjects which I have indicated are sufficient; but the curriculum I have sketched would not take up all the room in the case of abler boys, and for them I would cater according to individual ability. A boy with scientific tastes would do more science; for boys with linguistic gifts I would freely add German; for boys of real linguistic and literary ability I would add Latin and Greek, but as special subjects. This, however, is treating the question from the ideal point of view; and, as a compromise, I would have Latin taught to all boys, but I would teach it logically and grammatically rather than in a literary way, and I would throw the real energy of the linguistic teaching into French. This I would make as perfect as possible, conducting the lessons in French, paying attention to pronunciation and conversational expression, and aiming above everything at having composition taught flexibly and frequently. The point would be that the subjects would play into each other. History could be read in French, history and geography questions could be answered in French; and the result might be that the boy might feel what he seldom feels now—the joy of mastery. Try the simple experiment of asking a young man at the University, who has been taught Latin perhaps for ten years and Greek for eight, to read a simple passage into English from an easy author—he is not ashamed to confess than he can do nothing of the kind. Try the further experiment of asking him to write a short letter in either language, and you are met by an incredulous smile, as if you had made a suggestion that no sane person could have conceived. We may laugh cynically over such a result, but we ought really to be overwhelmed with shame and contrition.

Now, to reduce the main question to its simplest terms: What is the main object of linguistic training at all? It is, I conceive, twofold. Of course, it is, like all other mental exercises, a means of strengthening the memory and giving vigour to the brain; but the special training that comes from linguistic work, and which nothing else can give, is the training which is given by compos-

ing in another tongue. One has, in the first place, to arrive at the precise meaning of the passage which one is translating: to penetrate the writer's ultimate and innermost thought—in itself a valuable exercise. But that is only half the process. The next is to transpose the thought, so to speak, into another key; or, to dally with metaphors, to fuse the thought into its component metal, and to recast it in a new mould. Of course, this is done, and most elaborately and finely done, by advanced classical students. But one of the disastrous results of teaching boys three languages not their own all at once is that they never see far enough into the structure and essence of a language to arrive at this process at all; they have no mastery of any of these three languages, and no vocabulary. Thus the process, in their case, is not a transmutation of the thought, but a mere literal rendering of it with a servile fidelity; and when the same process is applied to verse composition it resolves itself into the wholesale insertion into the piece of such fragments of poetical writers as they can introduce—'get in,' it is familiarly called.

My own belief is that, if the attention of boys were concentrated on one language, they would attain the knowledge of structure, idiom, and vocabulary that is essential to the success of the process, and, instead of constructing a dreary and ugly mosaic in three practically unknown tongues, they might be receiving the benefits of a process which would at once be disciplinary and stimulating. Moreover, a modern language has for this purpose an immense advantage over an ancient one—that the whole sympathy of thought and intellectual purpose of modern writers are directed to a familiar class of ideas and subjects, and the intellectual processes follow congenial lines. One of the great advantages of an ancient language for advanced pupils is that it produces a really very strenuous kind of mental gymnastic. A boy has to write like Cicero or Plato upon subjects with which Cicero and Plato were not even dimly acquainted and of which they did not form the faintest conception; and thus the old language has to be ransacked and its resources strained to meet the demand. When this is done to perfection, as in Sir Richard Jebb's translation of the *Abt Vogler* into Greek choric metre, the result is a very supreme intellectual *tour de force*, even though it may be doubted whether a Greek tragedian would comprehend the drift of the passage. But such efforts are altogether outside of the capacity of the average boy; and thus we have a supreme instance of the application of a process that might be of high intellectual value if the boy's resources were equal to the strain, but which, in the absence of resources, is profoundly discouraging and stunting. It is one of the most palpable failures of the idealistic method.

And then, too, there comes the

other part of the linguistic process —the advantage to be gained by reading books in other languages. This, again, is of high intellectual value. It gives mental proportion, mental perspective; it shows one that people of different nationalities approach subjects from different points of view; it gives largeness and breadth to the mental horizon; it corrects the insularity and self-satisfaction that is one of the worst qualities of a complacent and self-absorbed nationality; it introduces the mind to a whole range of novel ideas and emotions; it shows the different notation of the scale of qualities among different nations. But all this is only possible if a boy can get, so to speak, inside a language, if he can appreciate style, word-melody, cadence, lucid expression. I venture to believe that this is possible with a single language only, for most people, and that it is far more possible with a modern than with an ancient language, for the simple reason that the modern language is nearer and more akin. It would be possible, no doubt, to arrive at it, to a certain extent, with an ancient language, but only by devoting a far larger amount of time and work to the subject than need be given to a modern language, and more, indeed, than, with the pressure of subjects, can be allotted to any one subject at all. In any case, I do not think that Latin literature is sufficiently great to justify so much time being given to it: the mind would be a starved one when all was done. If it were possible to do the same in Greek, there would be more to be said for it; but, in the first place, it is absolutely impracticable, and, in the second place, I cannot help feeling that Greek literature is really of too lofty an order to be made appreciable by average minds. Moreover, one of the most stimulating elements in literary training—the biographical element—is lacking in the case of the ancient languages, except in a very few instances.

There is a fine passage in Froude's *Life of Carlyle*, which shows how deeply stimulating an effect the study of the life and writings of Schiller had upon Carlyle. The stainless character of the great German dramatist, his enthusiasm burning like a clear flame, his despondency, his bad health, his religious struggles, his triumphant faith in virtue and nobleness, all sank deep into Carlyle's mind. Now, what ancient author can be approached like that? We may, perhaps, penetrate the mind of Plato, and, on a far lower plane, and with somewhat discouraging results, the mind of Cicero; but most of the writers of antiquity can be little more to us than grand ancient ghosts, or statuesque images, caught in a single splendid pose. With modern literatures it is very different. We can draw close to great modern writers; we can realize their surroundings, their circle, their aspirations, their limitations, in a way which makes their writings glow and tingle with life and sympathy. We forget how dependent

immature minds are upon all these side influences, and thus we throw aside the complex instrument which is ready to our hand in favour of a cumbrous ancient weapon, and all for the sake of dignified associations which have no message for the spirit of boyhood.

Of course, one of our difficulties in these later days is the immense accumulation of literary treasures of all sorts; but we are forced to select; and half the wretchedness of the present situation is that we will not face this difficulty, and, in a feeble effort to maintain our hold upon all, we make all ineffective. The time has come for us to make our choice. The world clamours for education to be made practical. Let us use that clamour wisely for philosophical ends. Let us take as our basis of linguistic training a language of which the utilitarian benefits are plain to the man in the street; and, having so chosen it, let us make sure that we use it from the idealistic point of view. The literary effects of a modern language can be made to appeal to a far wider circle of immature minds than the literary effects of the ancient languages. Now, in clinging so relentlessly to the old, we overlook the fact that most of the boys we educate never come under literary influences at all. I began my own work as a teacher knowing nothing, practically, but Latin and Greek, and with the firmest faith in their educational value. I was gradually converted to a hopeless mistrust of their capabilities, except in the case of a small percentage of high intelligences, and I will venture to say that any man with similar experience, who will face the situation candidly and without prejudice, is bound to come to the same conclusion. The difficulty is that it is so hard to dislodge the classicist: he maintains the supremacy of ancient literature, and, if one proves that under the present system the majority of boys never arrive at the perception of the classics as literature at all, he falls back on their superiority as a mental gymnastic. I have had the chance of seeing the results of our system at a later stage, and I will venture to say that my own University is crowded with young men capable of intellectual interest whose natures have been simply starved by the meagreness of the fare provided for them.

I claim, then, that a single modern language should be made the basis of our linguistic instruction; and, though I am inclined to think that we Englishmen are more in need of the kind of message which German literature can give us—its lofty emotion, its intellectual enthusiasm, its unaffected idealism—yet I believe that French is probably the more practical choice, because of its greater variety, its more tangible imaginativeness, and its exquisite precision and delicacy of literary form.

And now I have two practical points on which I wish to insist strongly. This is hardly the place to produce a long list of technical

recommendations; but, with the assistance of a friend who is deeply versed in modern literature, I have gone of late very carefully into the question of what kind of modern literature is best suited for educational purposes. I have become aware of the immense variety of fare and the inexhaustible possibilities of choice. What I wish to suggest is that some member of our Association should embark upon the task of writing a guide to modern literature from the educational point of view, based upon Professor Rippmann's bibliography. I should like to have a little book, written with lucidity and grace, with some biographical illustration and some critical discrimination, which should suggest courses of reading from the literary and historical points of view, discussing the style of the author recommended, and giving sound reasons for the selection. Such a book should not be a mere list of authors and volumes, but a work of literary art. It would, I think, open the eyes of many educators to the possibilities of the subject. I have more than once been overwhelmed with shame at the way in which I have heard men of high classical cultivation and sincere conviction maintain that the reason why French and German were inferior subjects in education was that there is nothing fit for boys to read. Such a position of fervent zeal fortified with invincible ignorance is a difficult one to contest, and I think that such a book as I have described might be a most effective argument in favour of modern linguistic education. I cannot imagine anything which would so strengthen our hands as a book of the kind. There is no lack of excellent school editions of modern books; but what one wants is that the whole should be co-ordinated and brought together. It may have been attempted; but, if so, I can only say that it has never been produced in a convincing and persuasive form. May I commend this to the notice of some enthusiast who will bring to the task wide knowledge and persuasive sympathy? It might, perhaps, even be better done in sections by a committee of writers; but such books, as a rule, lack the unity which is a condition of success.

And now I have a further practitical point that I would urge, which grows out of the last-named consideration. We stand, I think, at a somewhat critical point. I have no sort of doubt myself that we may at any moment have a sudden expansion of modern education. A change in the University programme may be upon us at any time. That may seem, with the result of the last Cambridge vote before us, to be a rash prophecy; but I am certain that there is a strong external pressure in the country in the direction of a greater elasticity; and there are such things as Royal Commissions, which may enforce a consensus of national opinion even upon a band of determined defenders. I am very anxious that this Association should have a per-

fectly clear and definite programme in the matter. We are the first in the field; and, if we can extend our organization and unite our forces upon a clear and precise issue, we may have a great influence upon the future of education. What I am anxious for is that we should throw over minuter points of difference, and agree upon certain distinct principles. The subjects which we are to debate to-day are of great technical interest and high educational value; but the point upon which we must lay a firm hand is the claim to make a modern language, thoroughly taught by entirely competent teachers, an absolutely essential feature of all higher secondary curricula. I do not think that we can secure a firm position for German as yet, but I think we can secure it for French. At present at too many public schools French is included in the programmes simply in deference to pressure, and no real attempt is made to teach it properly. It is too often bundled into corners by classicists. In the old story of Moses on the hill above the battle, his failing hands of entreaty were sustained by Aaron and Hur. If I may interpret the allegory, and, if Moses may stand for the spirit of education, the hands will correspond to the two dead languages, and Aaron and Hur may be taken to typify the clerical element which has done so much to uphold a system that has done its work. I should like to think that those hands might some day stand for modern languages, and that sturdier and more martial champions might be found to sustain them when they drooped.

But of one thing I am quite certain: that, if we are to do justice to the intellect and ability of our nation, if the younger generation is to hold its own in the Armageddon of the future, we must make their education a thing which more corresponds to modern needs and which takes account of urgent problems. We cannot isolate ourselves in a little paradise of high art when the tide of life is thundering in, with the breakers tossing foam. We dare not, for the sake of venerable associations, leave the minds of our boys ignorant of the great march of affairs, of the passionate hopes and aspirations of modern thinkers. Yet this is what we are doing. The other day I saw reported the speech of some small Oriental potentate—let us call him the Sultan of Leboo—to a band of young men who were going to Europe to learn engineering. The Prince, with mild dignity, said that he would only remind them that, though Leboo had possibly a little that it might learn from Europe, yet that they must never forget that Europe had still more to learn from Leboo. That is the mistake which we make in England now. We are so well satisfied with our isolated past that we read it into our future, to our infinite hurt and loss.

Therefore, I say, let us keep our end steadily in view. We need not claim all these far-reaching effects

for our humble work; but while we maintain a simple and practical position before the world—the paramount necessity of a modern language as an integral part of English education—let us sustain ourselves by the belief that it is but the small seed of what may be a mighty plant; and that from a small and definite ideal, faithfully and wisely pursued, there may spring benefits of whose amplitude and fruitfulness we can hardly dare to think.

But in all this let us keep our main purpose steadily in view. Let us remember the twofold purpose of education. We desire, on the one hand, to give a mental discipline that shall make of the mind a vigorous and effective instrument: we want to give lucidity and independence of view, and a faculty trained not to the submissive acceptance of whatever propositions are presented to it, but to independent and critical discrimination. We want to do away with languor, flabbiness, and softness. But that is only half the process. On the other hand, we desire to stimulate intelligent curiosity, to make the mind perceptive, sympathetic, generous, enthusiastic. We desire to train up men who shall be efficient in work and capable of enjoying leisure intelligently. We do not want to bias minds or to cramp them, but to develop the germs of any faculties that may be latent in them; to expand rather than to mould, to open doors rather than to close them; to inspire minds to range rather than to confine them to a narrow track. One of the greatest dangers that besets educational theorists is the danger of interpreting the wise old maxim, Πάντων μετρὸν ἄνθρωπος ('Man is the measure of all things'), in the sense that the individual is the measure of all men. We ought not to want to apply our theories so much as to be ready to modify them by the results of our observation. If we approach our task in this liberal and enlightened spirit, we can make of education a river which returns again to gladden the earth, instead of a stream which runs to waste among solitary and barren sands.

A. C. Benson.

SOME REFLECTIONS ON A RECENT EVENT.

It seems to the undersigned that the recent controversy which helped to brighten the dulness of the newspaper 'gooseberry' season conveyed various important lessons for those interested in certain educational questions. One thing seems to be certain, namely, that modern England is not ripe for a reform of the spelling system at present—no more ripe than she was on any of the various occasions on which the reform was broached in the past hundred or so years. The average man of culture is just as averse today to such proposals as he was sixty years ago, when Pitman and Ellis strove for reform. It is, of

course, a sad thing that the spelling reform cannot be effected, but the reasons why it cannot be so must be very much more depressing for all who are interested in the scientific study of language. The recent controversy was not a discussion between two parties who were equally fitted to deal with the questions involved. On the one side we had a small group of scholars who knew what they were talking about; on the other we had a great many people who, with the best intentions in the world, only succeeded in parading their ignorance. The failure of the reformers to convince their opponents is not the really sad thing about the controversy. The sad thing is that there are so many 'educated' people who were quite incapable of being convinced. The controversy, indeed, only emphasized a fact of ordinary experience—namely, that although there are such things as the sciences of phonetics and philology, those things are mere names to the average man of culture in England, names with which he does not connect any meaning at all. If he did, there would not be so many people ready and anxious, on an occasion like that referred to, to prove in print that they could not distinguish clearly between three such very different ideas as orthography, language, and literature. If they could distinguish between these, they would not be so ready to assert that a change of our orthographical system would damage our language, kill our literature, and leave the etymologist stranded—three dogmas in which the opponents of spelling reform put implicit faith. The really sad thing shown in the recent controversy, then, is that the culture of the present-day educated Englishman does not include as one of its ingredients even an elementary knowledge of the principles of linguistic science. Yet it may be confidently prophesied that, if the day ever comes when such knowledge does form an ingredient of general culture, the spelling reform will follow of itself as a natural consequence. For the Englishman who has such knowledge, it is an obvious thing that our spelling system calls for reform; for the man who has not that knowledge, it is far from obvious—nay, more, the very suggestion must appear to him in the light of something revolutionary and subversive. A reform in any particular direction only becomes possible when the large mass of people affected thereby have the knowledge necessary to enable them to appreciate the reasons which call for reform. That is the condition which at the present day is lacking so far as spelling reform is concerned. It will be seen, therefore, that the present state of affairs in this respect raises a very wide educational issue. It raises the questions, namely, Is it a good thing that educated men should not have acquired some knowledge of linguistic science? Are these points, on which such widespread ignor-

ance exists, really unimportant? If not, do they not show that more attention should be paid to certain parts of our educational machinery?

It will probably be admitted that one of the first aims of education, in the intellectual apart from the moral sense of the word, is to awaken the intelligent interest of the learner in the phenomena of the world around him. Yet there is one field of phenomena in which this has hardly, up to the present, been attempted. There are no phenomena which touch the individual more closely and at more points in his experience than the phenomena of his mother language. Yet in our present system of education the principles of the branches of science which enable us to understand those phenomena find no place. So far as understanding the phenomena of language is concerned, the average man of culture has to-day the same standpoint as the polite Roman in the days of Varro and Quintilian. Even if he knows the names phonetics and philology, he has no conception that in such things we have sciences just as far advanced past the classical standpoint as is the case with chemistry or physics. He does not know that a Sweet or a Skeat knows a great deal more than Quintilian, although he knows well enough that the elder Pliny is not now regarded as an authority in modern natural history. He does not know that when he, permeated with the ideas of a superannuated tradition, undertakes to meet Professor Skeat in open conflict on the field of spelling reform,* that the ensuing contest is comparable to a battle between a Roman trireme and a modern man-of-war! Of course, the explanation is simple: the modern man of culture has so engrained in him the idea of his debt to the literatures of antiquity, that he unthinkingly swallows therewith the ideas of language which the people had who produced these literatures. He realizes that in the art of literature we have not progressed much past the classic standpoint, if at all. Unable as he is, through lack of the proper training, to conceive a distinction between the two ideas of language and literature, he is rendered unable to do anything but accept the classic conception of both: in proportion as he assimilates the traditional ideas of literary art, he likewise assimilates the traditional ideas of language and its nature.

The upshot is that the average individual's attitude towards language, so far as it is acquired by education, is a completely æsthetical one. He is only taught to be interested therein in so far as language is associated with the forms of literature. He learns to study language in order to appreciate it in beautiful forms, not in order to comprehend it scientifically. Some people will doubtless claim that this is sufficient. 'Why comprehend scientifically when we can enjoy?' they may ask. 'Does a

* *Vide* recent correspondence in *Academy*.

botanist get more out of the beauty of flowers than the non-scientific observer who is led by Wordsworth to thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears?' Here we touch on the lines of an ancient struggle, and the present investigator confesses to feelings not unlike those of Childe Roland as he 'to the Dark Tower came.' Yet in our field at least a decision in this ancient struggle between art and science must be attained, and is perhaps easily attainable. In any case, the following considerations are probably worth noting:

So far as present-day education enables the man of culture to appreciate noble language, no one will have any desire to object to it. If, however, it imbues him with false ideas of language in addition to his appreciation, what then? We have seen above one result—namely, that the man of taste may appear all unwittingly in a false position. Relying on his love of the beautiful, and his antiquated notions of what language is, he may tilt Quixote-like against the windmills of modern science. We seem here to hit on the weak spot of the modern system. With much that is true and beautiful that system inculcates a good deal that is false and therefore ugly. This admixture must be got rid of and something better put in its place. It must be generally realized that knowing a language scientifically on the one hand and having a practical command of the language on the other hand are two very different things, and that the presence of one of these does not necessarily connote the presence of the other, any more than playing the piano, let us say, proves that the player knows the theory of music. The only way to attain this result is to introduce linguistic science as a subject in schools. Of course (as has been pointed out long ago—*e.g.*, by Sweet), this must be done in connection with English. What is desirable therefore is a sensible modern training in English grammar (grammar, of course, to be taken in the *modern* sense of the word) as a part of the regular school curriculum.* The present writer has heard a headmaster admit the desirability of scientific training in English, but object that there are no books for the purpose! Is it really true, as this would seem to show, that the name of Sweet is unknown in our English schools? Surely it is a sorrowful reflection that that great scholar should have done so much by his books for the proper training of youth, and that his efforts should meet with so little appreciation, as this appears to show!

It must not be imagined that the average man's interest in language is *either* æsthetic or non-existent. Apart from the natural or acquired interest of educated people in the art of writing and speaking 'correctly,' there is a very wide

* How many schools teach phonetics as part of an English course, in spite of the fact that Sweet confidently anticipated the day when phonetics would be a subject in the nursery?

and equally natural interest in the differentiation of speech phenomena. Observant people like to notice and compare differences in dialect, for instance. They not only notice such things, but reason about them and try to explain them. Here at once the lack of a scientific training makes itself felt. The reasons they assign for phenomena they have observed are nearly always quite fanciful. Thus I have heard a cultured gentleman, who had stowed away in a tenacious memory many very interesting dialect words and phrases he had heard, account for the differences of dialect by the theory that they were due to the yokel's love of arbitrarily corrupting words. The investigator of language hears a great many theories like the one cited in the course of occasional conversations. Surely the impression they leave is that there is a great deal of *misguided* interest in language, and that this interest ought somewhere to be fostered and cultivated? That means, of course, brought into line with modern science. Associations like the English Dialect Society can and have done much, but their aims are necessarily not pedagogical. If the schools did what might there easily be done, the whole mass of educated people would be leavened in a generation, or two at the most. People would laugh to scorn the educated man who did not know what gravity is. Yet every day one can hear opinions expressed on the phenomena of language which are, properly regarded, just as archaic as would be ignorance of Newton's great discovery. For that surely it is the schools who are to blame?

To conclude, let it be repeated that the writer is not arguing for spelling reform. As said above, he is confident it will come one day—of itself! Personally, however, he does not care one fig whether he witnesses its arrival or not. What seems to him a much more important thing is, as indicated, the spread of right ideas about language and the conditions of its existence. R. A. WILLIAMS.

THE DURHAM MEETING.

IT is with satisfaction that we can look back upon our Annual Meeting at Durham. It is true that our numbers were not large, but the inclemency of the weather and the ravages of influenza suffice to explain this, as well as the long journey, which prevented many in the South from attending.

The courtesy of their reception and the pleasure of meeting their friends in the North afforded ample compensation for those who came from afar, and the days spent at Durham will always be a pleasant memory. Our thanks are due above all to Mr. C. F. Herdener, who did all in his power to make us happy

and comfortable. The University authorities also took a warm interest in our meeting. We are particularly grateful to Dean Kitchin, who, as Warden of the University, gave us the address of welcome, which he kindly permitted us to reprint.

Indeed, the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING came away jubilant; for once he had secured enough material to fill several numbers. The fact is that the intellectual fare provided was exceptionally rich—almost too much so for the time at our disposal, as some of us were in consequence hardly able to do justice to the interesting town in which the meeting was held. In several cases it was impossible to discuss papers which dealt with very debatable questions.

The paper by our President, Mr. A. C. Benson, will be found in another part of this number, and our readers can judge for themselves how stimulating and valuable it was. As a chairman he performed his rather arduous duties with the greatest courtesy and tact, and evinced such a hearty interest in our work that we feel we have in him a real friend and sturdy supporter of our cause.

Professor Fiedler's paper was full of quaint information, which will, no doubt, be available before long in the pages of the *Modern Language Review*. We congratulate him on his find, and on his quite convincing arguments.

The discussion on Modern Language Papers in Civil Service Examinations was opened by Mr. A. A. Somerville, who spoke with authority on the Army Examinations, and by Professor Rippmann, who spoke of the Examination for the India Civil Service. General regret was expressed at the absence, through indisposition, of Mr. de V. Payen-Payne, whose long experience as a 'coach' would have rendered his contribution to the debate most valuable.

Mr. H. W. Atkinson followed with a thoughtful and instructive paper on the English and Dutch Language in South Africa, which will appear in an early number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

The work of the first day concluded with a debate on the order in which foreign languages should be studied. Here, too, we had a disappointment, owing to the absence of Professor E. A. Sonnenschein and Dr. T. C. Fry. The debate was admirably opened by our old friend (old in no other sense) Mr. Storr, and by Mr. Frank Fletcher, Headmaster of Marlborough College, and was well taken up by several members. The opinion was repeatedly expressed that French should be the first foreign language, and that Greek should not be taught in the preparatory schools. A plea was also made for intensive teaching, and for an interval of at least two years between the starting of any two languages.

In the evening there was a dinner in the Castle Hall, with commendably brief and bright speeches.

We should have mentioned that on the first evening there was a conversazione and a lantern lecture on South Africa by Mr. H. W. Atkinson, which was warmly applauded.

On the last day the proceedings were opened by the Rev. H. Ellershaw, whose paper on Drayton had a pleasant literary flavour, and succeeded in arousing interest in the works of one probably known to most of his hearers only as the author of the *Polyolbion*. Mr. A. G. Latham brought us back to the class-room with his question: Shall we abandon translation? His amusing and vigorous onslaught on the 'reformers' excited some of these to great indignation, and a discussion was fixed for the afternoon, but nothing came of it; and they will now have to express their views on paper in the columns of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING—which brings more grist to the editorial mill.

Professor Rippmann wound up the morning's work with a paper entitled 'Speaking Reform and Spelling Reform'; and the meeting concluded with graceful compliments to the authorities of the University of Durham and to Mr. Benson.

The new President, Mr. Storr, was the recipient of many congratulations. We are all delighted to honour one who has been unwearying in his devotion to the Modern Language Association.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE EQUIPMENT OF THE FRENCH TEACHER.

'HEAD of a Department,' in the November issue, touched upon a question which to many a headmaster or headmistress is probably the burning one of the day—the equipment of the teacher of French; yet she so far failed to find a clear and complete answer that a further discussion of the subject seems to me not altogether out of place. The question touches me profoundly as one whose professional life could present no greater catastrophe than the loss of one of my present French staff; for should one go, where should I look for another?

How should a girl of eighteen or nineteen, leaving the sixth form of a public school, and wishing to equip herself as a teacher of French, set about the task? I say 'girl,' because that is the standpoint of 'Head of a Department's' article; but, *mutatis mutandis*, the same problem applies to men. From an experience of ten years as a language mistress and five as a headmistress, I would suggest:

1. Two years at a University working for a modern language degree.
2. All vacations in France.
3. A third year in France, possibly in an *école normale*.
4. A year's solid training in a school.

The aim of (1) would be thorough linguistic training; of (2) and (3) command of spoken French and knowledge of French life; of (4) apprenticeship to a skilled teacher, familiarity with the methods and responsibilities of school life, study of children in the concrete. Together with this practical apprenticeship to one or a group of expert teachers, she should in this year study the theoretical side of education; but while working at psychology, history of education, methodology, etc., she should make a special study of

theory of her own subject, and, above all, work at phonetics.

Down to the end of (3) 'Head of a Department' would possibly agree with me, but I fall foul of her in (4). 'Training is the work of the University,' she asserts, 'not of the secondary school.' Here emphatically I join issue with her. But possibly the disagreement comes from a vague use of the word 'training.' Can it be that by 'training' she means 'training to be a University lecturer'? If she does, I entirely agree with her, for who so fit to be the models of future 'dons' than they who already sit in the seat of the learned? But if she uses 'training' in its more ordinary connotation, 'training to be a teacher in a school,' then I maintain *the* place not to learn it in is the University. So academic, so aloof from childhood do we become in our three years at the University that most of us find on re-entering school life that we have grown clumsy and shy, and from this manifold troubles spring. In all conscience, let us not prolong the academic frost by a fourth year. No; the function of a University is to promote scholarship, not to serve as the workshop for the prentice hand. To the schools he must go, lovingly to watch and imitate the craft of the cunning artificer who has perfected his skill and his tools by years of toilsome thought and labour.

In sketching out the above course, I have allowed only two years at the University. Few, if any, in two years could secure a First Class; but first class scholarship for the average modern language mistress is, to my mind, less important than a good second class with a year abroad. The exceptionally brilliant or ambitious student may aim at three years and a First, but she must pay for it by extending the period of her equipment to five years.

Of course, I have presupposed a good deal in the way of early training—the years of school life. For so long have we been on the wrong tack in education in England that in my inmost heart I am sure we shall not have an adequate supply of modern language teachers for another eight or ten years, by which time the children who began on right lines in the kindergarten a few years ago will be ready to reproduce in their own lessons the excellent processes to which their own organs of speech are being subjected now.

One word more. *Pace* 'Head of a Department,' no one, surely, who knows anything of Tripos work would wish to make the graduate course simultaneous with training. If 'Head of a Department' will study the syllabuses and examination papers for the Oxford, London, or Cambridge University Teaching Diplomas, she will find that the theoretical work alone demands several months' grind; and many years' experience in training modern language students and others convinces me that the raw graduate needs at least a year of practice. 'Head of a Department's' plan I saw pursued once in the Pädagogisches Seminar of a German University, with what seemed to me slipshod results, equally unsatisfactory to the pedagogue and to the professor. One had hoped that the fallacy of the 'half-timer'—for such in effect the suggestion amounts to—had been once and for ever knocked on the head by the registration authority.

But fallacies die hard.

HEADMISTRESS.

It is to be hoped, in the interests of the embryonic French teacher, that the article printed in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING of November last, under the above heading, was intended to arouse discussion and not to guide the unwary.

There are two points in particular in that article which seem very much open to question.

1. 'It does seem a pity that, to satisfy the often unreasonable and ignorant demands of the powers that be, the Cambridge student should just cross the road and spend, or rather waste, that fourth year at the Cambridge Training College, when she ought to be . . . stimulating these and getting her unruly member the

tongue into form.' It is not very clear to me what 'getting her unruly member the tongue into form' means. Does the writer by chance mean that a student must spend three years on 'translation and proses, textual criticism, and the usual linguistic grind' at the University, and then a fourth year in going abroad to improve the 'aural linguistic perception'? If so, I most heartily disagree with this as a preparation for a modern language teacher. This 'aural linguistic perception' ought to have been beyond criticism before the student quitted the preparatory department of her school, and safely nurtured by constant and careful use throughout the remainder of her career there. In fact, no Body should accept any student preparing to teach modern languages for a written examination of any standard whatever until it has satisfied itself that an absolute mastery over the spoken language has been attained. This 'aural linguistic perception,' which 'Head of a Department' suggests as the last necessity, should in my opinion be the very first.

2. 'In speaking of the training of the modern language teacher, there seems a danger in the air. . . . We mean that any secondary school, however admirable and efficient its French department may be, should undertake training. Training is the work of the University, not of the secondary school.' With such a statement I disagree still more. We are missing most precious opportunities by not making a much greater use of our public schools for purposes of training; and in the matter of modern languages, almost more than in any other subject, such a training would be of special value. Apart from the fact that the student can follow the experienced language mistress into every form day after day, seeing the difficulties as they arise, noticing how the mistress treats them, taking the lesson herself (*always* under supervision), experiencing its most varying perplexities, modern methods of teaching modern languages have brought us face to face with a new set of problems which demand that the student should know the child from the inside of the school, not the outside.

We are dealing with language, a spoken language, and if it is to be real to the child—*i.e.*, if it is to be an honest means of communication sooner or later: and my experience has found it sooner—the character and temperament of the child will force itself upon one's attention. For language is the expression of character and personal interests; and here even 'Quick and James' will certainly not suffice.

MODERN LANGUAGE MISTRESS.

Will you kindly insert in your next issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING the following remarks, arising from my perusal of an article which appeared in the November number, entitled, 'The Equipment of the French Teacher'? In my opinion, 'Head of a Department,' as the writer terms herself, wrote with the malevolent intention of giving offence to our Universities, our training colleges, and our secondary schools. The article, however, will probably not make the hoped-for impression, owing to the illogical nature of the arguments, the injustice of the criticisms, and the absurdly impracticable nature of the proposals made for the equipment of a French teacher.

Passing over the ill-judged comparison between English and French Universities and the fatuous remarks on the fondness of head mistresses for caps and gowns, I will proceed at once to the question of the training of secondary teachers, touching which question I must take exception to several points arising apparently from ignorance of the subject at hand.

Firstly, the works of James and Quick, admirable though they be, do not constitute the maximum of study required in order to satisfy the examiners in the history, theory, and practice of education. (No wonder 'Head of a Department' considers that a year set aside for the exclusive study of these two men would be wasted.)

Secondly, 'translations, proses, textual

criticism, and linguistic grind' form only a portion of the scheme of work of a reader for the 'Medieval and Modern Language Tripos.' 'Head of a Department' seems unable to realize that in order to make any real, comprehensive study of the literature of two nations, years of study are essential. Surely all who take any interest in the leading problems of Modern Language Teaching, including all enlightened 'Heads of Departments,' will acknowledge that such an exhaustive study is necessary, unless we are to be content to equip our pupils with powers of understanding a foreign language and of expressing themselves in it without helping them to cultivate a taste for the masterpieces of foreign literature. If the suggestion made by 'Head of a Department' were adopted—to compress into a brief two years the three years' course of study now considered necessary for the average Tripos candidate and the one year's training course—our Universities might soon be proud indeed of turning out mere machines, capable of grinding, it is true, but of little else, it is to be feared.

Thirdly, 'Head of a Department' brands secondary schools *en masse* with unfitness as training centres because ours is a country 'where self-constituted and usurped reputations prevail,' and although she considers that the 'subject of the equipment of a French teacher should be taken up and thoroughly thrashed out,' she dismisses the question of University *versus* secondary school as a training centre with the cursory remark: 'Training is the work of the University, not of the secondary school.' The question, however, cannot be dismissed in this summary fashion, for it opens out a wide field for discussion. Whilst, on the one hand, the University offers fuller advantages for the theoretical side of training, it must be handicapped in the facilities it can offer students for the practical side of the subject. A student at the University will be one amongst many—it may be tens, it may be hundreds—who seek practical experience in the secondary schools of that one particular town, whilst a would-be student in a secondary school can choose between all the schools in the country recognised as training centres, and her choice once fixed, she will be merely one out of a few who will find ample scope for zealous work on the practical side of the subject.

As, therefore, the University and the secondary school both have such admirable claims to be training centres, surely the best possible plan would be to combine the advantages of both by spending part of the year's training at a University and part at a secondary school. The experiment has already been made by the Oxford delegates with great success. Why should not this course be adopted universally?

What more can be desired for the training department of a French teacher's equipment beyond all that our Universities can offer on the theoretical side, followed by practical experience in a first-class secondary school, which, may it be noted *en passant*, is not 'recognised' as a training centre on the strength of a 'self-constituted and usurped reputation,' but by a rigid inspection from modern language specialists?

In conclusion, if the would-be French teacher has spent the three years preceding her training at one of our Universities, with several visits to France during the vacations, if she continues to visit that country from time to time in the school holidays, and if she systematically keeps up her knowledge of phonetics, acquired, it is to be hoped, in the early stages of studying the language, surely a really sound, practical, and all-round method will have been adopted for equipping a French teacher.

A MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHER.

Ordre il y a dans la nature: lois immuables; ordre il est dans les sciences abstraites: axiomes; ordre il y a dans les arts: perspective, attitude et grâce; ordre encore, ou musique, dans l'union harmonieuse de la pensée et de son expres-

sion ; ordre de même dans la plus haute Révélation* pour mieux convaincre. Partout donc, et en tout, la FORME embellit le fond.

Or la perfection d'ensemble, l'exactitude de proportions, cet art où rien n'est de trop ou pourtant rien n'est omis qui rehausse la beauté de la pensée et la rend lucide, fera toujours l'attrait de la langue française. La lucidité, trompeuse comme un mirage jusqu'à ce qu'on s'y essaie, plaît à l'homme de science qui voit dans l'ordre intelligence et puissance ; sa fine 'synonymie' charme le penseur ; pour l'écrivain, elle implique le bel accord de la pensée et de la FORME : 'autant vaut la pensée autant vaut l'expression qu'elle se donne.' C'est de ce point de vue surtout que l'étudiant quand il n'a point la langue grecque, doit apprendre à approcher l'idiome français pour en saisir l'intelligence. Faute de goût, faute, peut-être, de ne l'avoir pas compris, il en est qui veulent souffler du doute sur sa beauté : une langue de société, de bel esprit, de diplomate au plus.

Elle est en effet du *monde*, du monde qui n'admet pas l'expression patoisée, directe et ambiguë, parce que, pendant tout le dix-septième et le dix-huitième siècles jusqu'à nos jours l'esprit masculin a été limé et raffiné par l'esprit féminin, ce qui, à mon sens, n'est pas à regretter, car ce que les Grecs avaient sans ce secours, il nous le fallait. Aucun idiome moderne ne se ressent plus de la droiture de l'instinct féminin, aucune littérature n'est plus empreinte de plus brillantes et fines mobilités d'impressions que la langue et la littérature française—à cause des femmes. Aussi se recommande-t-il dans l'enseignement et par la raison et par 'les raisons du cœur que la raison ne connaît pas toujours' ; mais il faut le sentir pour le présenter tel qu'il est—si on veut le professer.

VICTOR E. KASTNER.

* Voir Bible, surtout Les Actes xxvi., versets 2-29.

THE FUNCTION OF A LOCAL SECRETARY.

May I, not out of idle curiosity, but with a genuine desire for information, inquire what is the function of a local secretary of the Modern Language Association? I read in the last number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING that fourteen new ones had just been appointed. Possibly I may be in total ignorance of meetings convened by these latter, and important subjects discussed thereat, but if such meetings are held, surely it should be the aim of a local secretary to inform as many local members as possible. I yield to no one in my admiration of the splendid work achieved by the Executive Committee, and the immense self-sacrifice entailed thereby; but it has always appeared to me an extraordinarily weak point in our organization that, unlike kindred institutions such as the A.M.A., branch meetings of the Modern Language Association seem conspicuous by their absence. It is quite unnecessary to enlarge on the advantages of such meetings being organized, and, if possible, a few lines devoted to a report of such meetings would doubtless be of considerable interest to provincial members. If, however, I am talking in utter ignorance of the true state of affairs, none will be more pleased to have wrong impressions corrected than myself.

CECIL H. S. WILLSON.

MR. ANDERSON'S *NOUVELLE GRAMMAIRE FRANÇAISE.*

I crave a short space to reply to your reviewer's remarks on my *Nouvelle Grammaire Française*. I see nothing careless in the note on p. 17. The third letter of the alphabet was purposely omitted because Frenchmen are not agreed about the name. Some use *k*, others *s*, and give a common word as an example. *Ks* is the new name of *x*, and is no improvement of mine, whereas *w* is strictly not a French letter at all. It may be obtuse-

ness on my part, but I see no point in your reviewer's remarks anent 'y' and 'i grek.' They are the *names* of *u* and *y* under the new as well as under the old system.

The remarks with regard to my treatment of phonetics are somewhat misleading, as the four examples given are the only cases where I use a different notation to that of the A.P.I., and are found only in the table in the Introduction, where French and English sounds are compared. Having adopted the Bell-Sweet divisions, I was compelled to depart from the notation of the A.P.I. in order to use a systematic notation based on the tongue positions. In fact, I consider it to be a grave defect of the A.P.I. notation that it has no scientific basis, and I hope we are not irrevocably wedded to it. It is a pity the great English phoneticians have been so lightly esteemed in their own country. However, it appears to me a needless complication and at best a makeshift to represent more or less correctly *man* by *mæn* and *but* by *bat*, and little short of an error to give *hau* as the usual pronunciation of *how*. If it is desirable that the first notions of phonetics should be obtained in the mother tongue and before a foreign language is begun (I trust the day is near when phonetic tests will be compulsory in all elementary schools), then the English point of view should be kept in mind. It is no doubt useful for a Frenchman learning English to have *he* and *you* figured as 'hij' and 'juw,' but is it advisable to teach an English pupil to pronounce them so, or are they so pronounced generally even in South English? Are not such pronunciations merely the result of lazy habits of speech and of tendencies which are disfiguring to an increasing extent South English speech, which most Northerners like myself admire and envy in many respects?

J. G. ANDERSON.

The reason, I assume, for changing the name of M from *em* to *m* is that teachers have wished to make the name of the symbol and the pronunciation which it represents as similar as possible. It would therefore seem inconsistent to speak of *dubl v* and *i grek*. Why not treat these as other symbols are treated? It is obvious that a simple name could be deduced from the French pronunciation of the words in which these letters occur.

I did not mean to credit Mr. Anderson with the improvement. I did suppose he endorsed, as he did not improve them.

I still hold to my opinion that a school French Grammar is not the right place for discussing the finer shades of the phonetics of English. If phonetics is to become a school subject, we must not differentiate too finely.

As to what Mr. Anderson calls 'the result of lazy habits of speech and tendencies which are disfiguring South English speech,' this is as fond as the complaint of a mother who is so sorry to see her dear boys growing up to be men and getting far from her. Language grows, whether we like it or not, and it is flagrantly unscientific to say that such words as *érable*, *jemand*, *thimble*, *maugre*, are 'disfigured' forms of speech.

YOUR REVIEWER.

EXAMINATIONS.

SCHOOL EXAMINATION (JUNIOR STANDARD) OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

WE have received permission to reprint the papers set in July, 1906. The time allowed was one and three-quarter hours in each case.

In the English paper the first part consisted of questions on authors read, and varied according to the school; we only reproduce here the second part, which was taken by all candidates. This seems to us quite straightforward, and by no means beyond the powers of boys and girls of fifteen. The average mark secured was,

however, not very high. A good many candidates showed that they had not done much English reading, or had done it in a superficial way, otherwise their answers to such questions as 2 and 5 would have been better.

1. Paraphrase the following passage—that is, rewrite it in simple words, so as to show what you understand by it:

'Hear me, recreant!
On thine allegiance, hear me!
Since thou has sought to make us break our vow,
Which we durst never yet, and with strained pride
To come between our sentence and our power,
Which not our nature nor our place can bear,
Our potency made good, take thy reward.
Five days we do allot thee, for provision
To shield thee from diseases of the world;
And on the sixth to turn thy hated back
Upon our kingdom: if, on the tenth day following,
Thy banished trunk be found in our dominions,
The moment is thy death. Away! by Jupiter,
This shall not be revoked.'

2. Give the abstract nouns connected with the following adjectives and verbs (for example—*negligent, neglect; hate, hatred*): *attain, analogous, betray, corrode, concise, cohere, contrite, detain, inept, ingenious, obdurate, perpetuate, pessimistic, petrify, seize.*

3. Explain the terms—*predicate, finite verb, scansion, inflexion, gerund, alliteration, metaphor, diction, apposition, epigram, intransitive, euphony, lyric, parenthesis, prosody.*

4. The word *past* may be used as different parts of speech. Name them, and illustrate each separate use by a short sentence.

5. Introduce each of the following words into a short sentence, so as to show that you understand its meaning:

concerted, stipulate, appraise, invidious, sinecure.

6. Give the general analysis of the following sentence—that is, divide it into clauses, and show the relation of these clauses to each other:

'Early in the evening, before the news came that the King was dead, the Queen was telling her attendants what a happy life she had led until she came to Scotland.'

The paper in Composition contained the direction: 'Do not spend more than half an hour over Question 1.'

1. Give an account of—

A scene from a Shakespeare play,

or

A scene from one of Scott's novels,

or

Any short narrative poem.

2. Write an essay on *one* of the following subjects:

The value of games.
A visit to a place of historical interest.
Animals as pets.
The pleasures of travel.

The papers in French and German are on the same lines as in previous years. An improvement was noticed in the applied grammar, and a growing number of candidates showed considerable power of expressing themselves grammatically and with some fluency in their own words. On the other hand, there were a fair number of poor renderings of the unseen translation, the pupils evidently having had little practice in tackling difficulties of vocabulary. When they came to an unfamiliar word, they either left a blank (which teachers should never tolerate) or they made a guess so extravagant as to show that they had not troubled to make a sensible choice among the various alternatives that would be suitable in the context. The answers to the last question showed that there is much uncertainty in the minds of the pupils as to the differences in pronunciation between the mother tongue and French or German; in some cases the statements made were sufficient evidence of faulty teaching.

FRENCH.

1. Translate into good English, *leaving no blanks:*

Mon éducation, je vous l'ai dit, avait été faite dans la campagne. Mon enfance, une partie de ma première jeunesse s'étaient passées presque à cheval. Je puis dire sans trop me flatter que, s'il y avait quelqu'un dans le monde capable d'accomplir cette prouesse équestre, c'était moi. Je fis sur moi-même un effort presque

surnaturel, et je parvins à recouvrer tout mon sang-froid en face de la mort. A tout prendre, je l'avais bravée déjà trop souvent pour m'en effrayer plus longtemps. Dès ce moment, je me pris à espérer encore.

Lorsque mon cheval sentit pour la première fois, depuis ma recontre avec le colonel, le mors serrer sa bouche, je m'aperçus qu'il tressaillait sous moi. Je me raffermis vigoureusement sur mes arçons, pour faire comprendre à l'animal effrayé que son maître ne tremblait plus. Je le soutins de la bride et des jambes, comme fait tout bon cavalier dans un passage dangereux, et de la bride, du corps et de l'éperon, je parvins à le faire reculer de quelques pas.

2. Rewrite the passage 'Mon éducation . . . espérer encore,' substituting the third person for the first, and the present for the past, and making all necessary changes.

3. Rewrite the passage 'Lorsque mon cheval . . . ne tremblait plus,' substituting *chevaux* for *cheval* and *nous* for *je*, and making all necessary changes.

4. Suppose that you are talking to the man who is speaking in the above passage. Ask him four questions based on the passage, and give his answers.

5. Collect all the adjectives in the above passage, and give their feminine form with a suitable substantive; thus, if *petit* occurred in the passage, you might give *une petite maison*.

6. Write fifteen lines of French (about 150 words) describing yourself; state your age, the number of your sisters and brothers, how long you have been at this school, what you do on half-holidays, whether you have any pets, etc.

7. Make up six French sentences, containing the following words respectively: (i.) *allé*, (ii.) *où*, (iii.) *quoique*, (iv.) *en*, (v.) *plus*, (vi.) *soit*.

8. State clearly the difference in pronunciation between—

ENGLISH	and	FRENCH
garden	,,	*jardin*,
enchant	,,	*enchante*,
table	,,	*table*.

GERMAN.

[*Some marks will be given for good writing in German characters, but marks will be deducted if the writing is poor. Therefore write in English characters if you cannot write quite neatly in German characters.*]

1. Translate into good English, *leaving no blanks*:

Ein Kaufmann hatte einen Hund, der sehr wachsam und treu war. Einst ritt der Kaufmann von einem Markte, wo er viel Geld eingenommen hatte, nach Hause. Sein Geld hatte er hinter sich in einem kleinen Sacke, welchen er mit Schnur am Sattel befestigt hatte. Sein Hund lief neben ihm her. Nach und nach wurde die Schnur locker, und der Sack fiel herab, ohne dasz es der Kaufmann bemerkte.

Der Hund aber sah es und fing an zu winseln. Der Kaufmann hörte nicht auf ihn. Nun bellte der Hund ganz laut; da hieb ihn sein Herr einige Male mit der Reitpeitsche. Aber der treue Hund hörte nicht auf. Er sprang an das Pferd, dasz es nicht weitergehen sollte, und seine Schnauze war weisz mit Schaum.

Da dachte der Kaufmann, der Hund sei toll geworden. Er schosz ihn mit seiner Pistole und ritt wieder weiter.

Bald aber fühlte er hinter sich und erschrak, als er seinen Sack vermiszte. Er ritt zurück und kam endlich dahin, wo sein Geldsack heruntergefallen war. Neben ihm lag sein treuer Hund. Er wedelte mit dem Schwanze, leckte seinem Herrn die Hand und starb.

2. 'Sein Geld . . . bemerkte.' Rewrite this passage, substituting the second person for the third, and the present for the past; thus you will begin: 'Dein Geld hast . . .'

3. 'Der Hund . . . Reitpeitsche.' Rewrite this passage, substituting *ich* for *der Hund*, and the future for the past.

4. Collect the prepositions in the second section of the above passage (lines 11 to 18), and write short German sentences to show clearly what case or cases follow these prepositions.

5. (i.) Der treue Hund sprang an das starke Pferd.
(ii.) Dieser reiche Kaufmann kam von einer groszen Stadt.
(iii.) Mein guter Freund gab dem fleiszigen Knaben ein schönes Buch.

Rewrite these sentences—
(*a*) putting the substantives into the plural, and making the other changes that become necessary;
(*b*) substituting pronouns for the substantives.

[Your answer should therefore consist of six sentences.]

6. Write fifteen lines (about 150 words) about your home: say where it is, how long you have lived there, how far it is from your school, what rooms there are on each floor [*der Stock*], whether you have a garden, etc.

7. State clearly the difference in pronunciation between—

English	and	German
wild	,,	*wild*,
father	,,	*Vater*,
stork	,,	*Storch*.

HOME CIVIL SERVICE (FIRST CLASS CLERKSHIPS), INDIA CIVIL SERVICE, EASTERN CADETSHIPS.

The papers in French and German are, perhaps for the first time since the new regulations came into force, satisfactory. We have occasionally seen good French papers or good German papers; that both should be good in the same year is worthy of record.

It is true that the translation papers are immoderately long. To do them well in less than five hours would be impossible for any man who was not a professional translator of long experience. Three French (or German) passages and two passages for composition, with an average length of about 200 words, and, further, a short essay on such a subject as *Le péril jaune*, or *Schwierigkeit einer objektiven Geschichtsdarstellung*—all to be done in *three hours!* Doubtless, however, the examiners desire to see tolerable but hurried rather than finished and deliberate work.

The French language paper consisted of a passage from Thomas' *Roman de Tristan*, to be translated by all candidates; one of four questions on historical grammar; one of three questions on modern syntax and prosody. Almost all these questions were suitable and well expressed; we take exception only to the one: 'Development of the past participle on its passage from Latin into French.' It is by no means clear what period in its development is here intended.

The questions on French literature were also well chosen. All candidates were obliged to comment on a passage from the *Art poétique*, to do one of five questions on medieval literature, and one of six questions on authors of the sixteenth to nineteenth centuries. Among these we note particularly:

'Développer l'opinion suivante exprimée par Monsieur Lanson: "Il a certainement passé quelque chose de Rousseau dans George Eliot."'

'Exposer le sujet de *Jocelyn*. Discuter la valeur poétique de ce poème et exposer les raisons pour lesquelles l'Angleterre ne lui a réservé qu'un accueil des plus froids.'

By thus affording a good choice of questions and not requiring answers to more than six, the examiners enable candidates to write at some length on subjects which have attracted their special interest.

The German language paper contains one obligatory question: 'What are the main differences between the vowel and consonant systems of Middle High German and modern classical German?'—and a choice of three out of seven other questions. It seems a pity that the translation of a Middle High German passage is optional. The passage in this paper is printed partly in *Fraktur* and partly in *Antiqua*, which gives to Middle High German a needlessly confusing appearance. The question on prosody is not clearly worded—at least, in its second part:

'When does rime first make its appearance in German poetry? With what new metrical principle was rime connected?'

In the literature paper the following question was obligatory:

'"Lessing was greater as a critic than as a poet." Examine this view of his works, and quote his own words as to his poetical abilities.'

Answers were required to three further questions, to be chosen from fourteen.

The questions are quite suitable; a few may be quoted:

'Exemplify Heine's irony in his lyrics, and illustrate by his life. How far is this use of irony peculiar to Heine?'

'Contrast or compare Geibel and Mörike with reference to their popularity and absolute value.'

'Who was the greatest dramatic poet in the generation after Goethe's death? Justify your choice by comparison with contemporary dramatists.'

COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS EXAMINATIONS.

THE papers in language begin to show more uniformity in their method, and are mostly free from questions of the old-fashioned type, but not altogether so. In the First Class or Senior paper we find the following:

Give rules for the agreement of the past participle of verbs conjugated with avoir, and of reflexive verbs. Add examples.

The obvious objection to this kind of question is that a pupil (or a teacher, or a Frenchman, or the examiner) might not be able to give a satisfactory answer to it, and yet make no mistake in practice. But that the learner should make no mistake in practice is the object of instruction, that he should remember the rule when once the practice is perfect is entirely unnecessary. Grammatical rules, it cannot be too often repeated, are a means to an end, and not an end in themselves. Such questions as the above make them an end in themselves, and encourage the senseless cramming from which we are trying to free the schools. The same objection applies to some of the questions in the Italian and Spanish papers.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

IN order not to make a bad impression by delaying the appearance of the first number of the new volume, we go to press without including several items that we should gladly have inserted. There are limitations of space, too, which hamper us; this must excuse us in the eyes of some readers who may have desired a full and complete account of the Annual Meeting. For particulars of the various papers and debates we refer them to our esteemed contemporary the *Journal of Education*.

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WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

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DRAYTON.

MANY a smaller man has received more attention than has fallen to the lot of Michael Drayton. True, he is not to be counted among the greatest of his time, and perhaps not even to be numbered among those of the second rank in each particular line of achievement; but if one considers the bulk of his work, its versatility, and the high level sometimes attained in each class, it is difficult to understand the slight attention which has been paid him.

The facts of Drayton's life, so far as they have been ascertained, need not detain us long. He was born in 1563, at Hartshill, not far from Atherstone in Warwickshire. Apparently he was indebted for education and much else to the family of Goodere of Polesworth. Whether Drayton was at the University is unknown; and Professor Elton thinks that Cokaine's couplet is not evidence enough to show that he was at Oxford, in face of the universal silence on the point. In process of time Drayton went to London. The exact date is uncertain, but he was there in 1591. Of how he spent his life in town little is known, but one may surmise that he lived as the other impecunious writers of the time did. As to his friends, it is not easy to say much, but we know he was acquainted with Dekker, Middleton, and Webster, for he collaborated with them in dramatic work, according to Henslowe. Sidney and Spenser he knew, and we may believe that he was more than a mere acquaintance of Shakespeare's—if the story be true that Drayton was one of the friends present at the disastrous banquet at New Place which preceded Shakespeare's death. In any case, Drayton was in the midst of the literary celebrities of his time, and took his share in the poetic output of the age. He died in 1631, and lies buried in Westminster Abbey.

Turning now to Drayton's writings, we shall find that he was encyclopædic in range. His claims as a dramatist may be dismissed at once; but without that title to fame, the work which he has left is so varied and profuse that he has had assigned to him rightfully a lofty place upon the slopes of Parnassus.

Drayton is a poet more talked about than read, and it may well be doubted if the average person knows more about him than that he wrote *Polyolbion*, or has read more than one sonnet and the ballad on

the Battle of Agincourt; and yet he deserves greater study than this, for he has written much that from one cause or another is worth remembering. It would be strange indeed if in such a mass of work there could not be found some golden grains.

The earliest of Drayton's printed works is *The Harmony of the Church*. This, which consists of versions of various portions of Scripture, was seized by the Archbishop of Canterbury, and, with the exception of forty copies, was destroyed. (One wonders why.) In these verses no indication is given of the varied power which Drayton was subsequently to evince, yet, on the other hand, they are not so poor in quality as they have been frequently made out to be. There is a certain vigour and fine fancy even here. This version from the Song of Solomon is far from despicable:

'Within My garden plot, lo, I am present now!
I gatheréd have the myrrh and spice that in abundance grow;
With honey, milk, and wine I have refresh'd Me here:
Eat, drink, My friends, be merry there with hearty friendly cheer.
Although in slumbering sleep it seems to you I lay,
Yet hear I My Beloved knock, methinks I hear him say,
Open to Me the gate, My love, My heart's delight,
For, lo, My locks are all bedewed with drizzling drops of night!
My garments are put off, then may I not do so:
Shall I defile My feet I wash'd so white as any snow?
Then fast even by the door to me He show'd His hand;
My heart was then enamoured when as I saw Him stand.
Then straightways up I rose to ope the door with speed:
My hands and fingers droppéd myrrh upon the bar indeed.
Then openéd I the door unto my Love at last;
But all in vain, for why, before my Love was gone and past.
There sought I for my Love, then could I cry and call;
But *Him* I could not find, nor He would answer me at all.'

We may spend a little more time and space than this over the *Polyolbion*. So vast is it that one feels it ought to be ushered in with due ceremony. This cannot be accomplished better than by quoting the title-page of 1613: 'Polyolbion— or | A Chorographicall Description of Tracts, Rivers | Mountains, Forests, and other parts of this renowned Isle | of Great Britaine | With intermixture of the most Remarquable Stories, Antiquities, Wonders | Rarityes, Pleasures and Commodities of | the same: | Digested in a poem | By Michael Drayton, | Esq.' After such an introduction much will be expected, and truly the reader who essays the thirty songs will not be disappointed. It is a long poem to read, but not so wearisome as it has been said to be. It is written in rhyming couplets of twelve syllables, and there is a distinct break after the sixth syllable in each line; in other words, it is written in alexandrines. This fact it is which, more than anything else, causes the poem to appear monotonous for the narrative itself is varied with surprising skill. Drayton's account of the various shires differs considerably. Some he treats at great length, and with a prodigal lavishness of legend and history; while others are scanted of their fair proportions. It is noticeable how much Drayton affects catalogue—either of names of persons and places or of things. A passage from the fourth song will illustrate this:

'When now the British side scarce finishéd their song
But th' English that repin'd to be delayed so long,
All quickly at the hint, as with one free consent,
Strook up at once and sung each to the instrument;
(Of sundry sorts that were, as the musician likes)
On which the practis'd hand with perfect'st fingering strikes,
Whereby their height of skill might liveliest be exprest.
The trembling *Lute* some touch, some strain the *Viol* best,
In sets which there were seen, the music wondrous choice:
Some likewise there affect the *Gamba* with the voice,

To show that England could variety afford.
Some that delight to touch the sterner wiry *Chord*,
The *Cythron*, the *Pandore*, and the *Theorbo* strike:
The *Gittern* and the *Kit* the wand'ring Fiddlers like,
So were there some again, in this their learned strife,
Loud instruments that liv'd; the *Cornet* and the *Fife*,
The *Hoby*, *Sagbut* deep, *Recorder*, and the *Flute*:
Even from the shrillest *Shawm* unto *Cornamute*.
Some blow the *Bagpipe* up, that plays the *Country-round*:
The *Taber* and the *Pipe* some take delight to sound.'

The verse here is not unpleasing, in spite of the poet's determination to include the names of nineteen instruments. The passage, in the fifteenth song, which contains a catalogue of flowers is too long to quote, but one is inclined to wonder whether it would have been what it is had not the poet been acquainted with the works of Spenser—not entirely as to language, of course, but with reference to the feeling of the passage. The introductory lines are beautiful:

'The *Naïads* and the Nymphs extremely overjoy'd,
And on the winding banks all busily imploy'd,
Upon this joyful day, some dainty chaplets twine:
Some others chosen out, with fingers neat and fine,
Brave anadems do make: some bauldricks up do bind:
Some garlands: and to some the nosegays were assign'd;
As best their skill did serve.'

It will have been noticed that there are various inversions here; and this is a trait which is found constantly throughout the poem. As a further example, take these lines from the commencement of the eleventh song:

'Returning to his home, his hospitable gate
The richer and the poor stood open to receive.
They, of all England, most to ancient customs cleave,
Their Yeomanry, and still endeavour'd to uphold.'

The fight between Guy of Warwick and Colebrond in the twelfth song, a passage which it would have been delightful to give had it been possible, shows how well Drayton could treat a heroic passage of arms. The *Polyolbion* perhaps illustrates better than any other work the real character of Drayton's muse. True, it sometimes soars, yet its flight for the most part is not very lofty; there is nothing inevitable about it. The *Polyolbion* is a patriotic chronicle whose *purpurei panni* allure the reader onward in spite of himself, but it has nothing of epic feeling or grandeur. Its resemblance to the epic ends with its length.

But it is time to turn and examine other sides of Drayton's genius, and there are many which will repay the trouble. It will, indeed, not be possible to go exhaustively through all of them, and therefore we need not concern ourselves specially about the exact order of the poems; for the purpose in hand is rather to arouse interest in Drayton than to air novel views about him, or to attempt to clear up difficulties which have baffled research. If we turn now to *Odes: with other Lyrick Poesies*, we shall be astonished at the change of style—except that we know how nimble was the wit in Elizabeth's great days.

In his dedication to Sir Henry Goodere, Drayton shows that he has a very clear perception of what the lyric must be—short and expressive of the feelings at a white heat of passion:

'Believe it, he must have the trick
Of rhyming with invention quick
That should do lyrics well.'

How Drayton does them we shall see. The poems are on various subjects and of varied merit; and though there are some which we shall not be likely to recur to often, there are others which, either for fairy fancy, patriotic sentiment, or graceful diction, we shall not willingly forget.

It is tempting to quote whole *A Canzonet to his Coy Love:*

'I pray thee, love, love me no more,
Call home the heart you gave me;
I but in vain that saint adore
That can, but will not save me:
These poor half-kisses kill me quite,
Was ever man thus served?
Amid an ocean of delight,
For pleasure to be starved.

'Show me no more those snowy breasts,
With azure riverets branched,
Where, whilst mine eye with plenty feasts,
Yet is my thirst not stanched.
O Tantalus, thy pains ne'er tell,
By me thou art prevented;
'Tis nothing to be plagu'd in hell,
But thus in heaven tormented.

'Clip me no more in those dear arms,
Nor thy life's comfort call me;
O, these are but too powerful charms,
And do but more enthrall me.
But see how patient I am grown,
In all this coyle about thee;
Come, nice thing, let thy heart alone,
I cannot live without thee.'

There is a lightness of touch and a gracefulness of fancy in this that the *Polyolbion* does not prepare us for, and withal there is a serious reality in the last line that is true to life—'I cannot live without thee'—yet folks do, *and rue*. Similar to this is his treatment of another aspect of the pains of love in *The Rival*. The same gaiety is apparent, and there is also added, playfully 'tis true, but really, the spice of jealousy. The last poem in this series is the matchless patriotic *Ballad of Agincourt*. Here at any rate Drayton reaches to heights which he but seldom attains—and who is more inspiring than he here? The verse stirs the blood like the blast of a trumpet. How joyous was the fighting! The host advances to battle as a man to a banquet or a bridal:

'Fair stood the wind for France,
When we our sails advance,
Nor now to prove our chance
Longer will tarry;
But putting to the main,
At Kaux, the mouth of Seine,
With all his martial train,
Landed King HARRY.
And taking many a fort
Furnish'd in warlike sort,
Marcheth towards Agincourt
In happy hour.'

And so on. Is there any other war-poem that approaches that? If for a moment we may consider modern writers, Henley's 'Edward the Prince, here in Canterbury Minster,' comes near it, but where the former poem is stately, the latter is rather restless and bustling.

Here it will not be out of place to refer to that delightful phantasy *Nymphidia*. It is true that it is of a different date, or at any rate was published at a different time, from the poem just quoted; but there is the same buoyant spirit observable that one finds in *To his Coy Love*. *Nymphidia* was first published in 1627, and if it were written near that time it is very remarkable as the work of a man of sixty-four who had essayed no work of quite the same kind previously. It is difficult to write with conviction of fairyland, and Drayton has not done so, but for all that *Nymphidia* is a notable performance. The introduction of the fairies into Tennyson's play of the *Foresters* serves only to show the danger of touching the supernatural if it is alien to the poet's thought. To introduce the fairy element into a play about Robin Hood was to court disaster, for comparison was obvious with one who had entered the realm of faery and given it immortality. But though Drayton lacks Shakespeare's superb genius, he has not failed in what he aimed at. *Nymphidia* tells us of the jealousy of Oberon owing to Queen Mab's fondness for the fairy knight Pigwiggen. The queen and the knight make an assignation, and Oberon, finding Mab gone, immediately concludes that she is with her lover, and forthwith commences to search for her. He meets with various adventures—encounters a wasp, a glow-worm, runs into a hive, then meets an ant, runs against a mole-hill deeming it a mountain, falls into a lake, and finally meets Puck, who promises to bring the queen back. Nymphidia, an attendant of Queen Mab, overhears this, and posts off to the

queen to inform her of her danger. Then there is the encounter of Oberon with Pigwiggen, and finally the ending of all differences by means of a draught of Lethe. Such is the tale, and Drayton's muse was fully equal to what the occasion required. One does not feel that Drayton is dealing with the supernatural world—he has never seen it—he is writing about what he has heard of, but never seen. The writing is beautiful and ornate, but never convincing; and the metre, too, aids in the impression which we get. It is the old ballad metre which Chaucer ridiculed in Sir Topas, and Drayton knew it, as is shown by his very first line 'Old Chaucer doth of Topas tell.' It is hard to illustrate the level excellence of the poem by extracts, but the attempt may be made. Here is Queen Mab's chariot:

'Her chariot of a snail's fine shell,
Which for the colours did excel,
The fair Queen Mab becoming well,
So lively was the limning;
The seat the soft wool of the bee,
The cover (gallantly to see),
The wing of a pied butterfly,
I trow 'twas simple trimming.

'The wheels composed of crickets' bones,
And daintily made for the nonce,
For fear of rattling on the stones
With thistle down they shod it;
For all her maidens much did fear
If Oberon had chanced to hear
That Mab his queen should have been there
He would not have abode it.'

Here follows the account of Pigwiggen's arming:

'A little cockle-shell his shield,
Which he could very bravely wield;
Yet could it not be pierced:
His spear is bent both stiff and strong,
And well near of two inches long:
The pile was of a horse-fly's tongue
Whose sharpness nought reversed.

'And puts him on a coat of mail,
Which was of a fish's scale,
That when his foe should him assail
No point should be prevailing.
His rapier was a hornet's sting,
It was a very dangerous thing,
For if he chanc'd to hurt the king,
It would be long in healing.

'His helmet was a beetle's head,
Most horrible and full of dread,
That able was to strike one dead,
Yet did it well become him;
And for a plume, a horse's hair
Which, being tosséd by the air,
Had force to strike his foe with fear,
And turn his weapon from him.

'Himself he on an earwig set,
Yet scarce he on his back could get,
So oft and high he did curvet,
Ere he himself could settle:
He made him turn and stop and bound,
To gallop, and to trot the round,
He scarce could stand on any ground
He was so full of mettle.'

Turning now to the *Eclogues*, we find in the fourth a poem which we may compare with *Nymphidia*—the tale of Dowsabel. This is obviously the precursor of *Nymphidia*, but how different! It was an earlier attempt in the same school, but by a 'prentice hand. It does not compare with the later poem. Yet the *Eclogues* as a whole, to their date, are as fine as anything of the kind subsequent to the *Shepheard's Calendar*. Indeed, Drayton praises Spenser in his address to the reader. He says: 'Master Edmund Spenser had done enough for the immortality of his name had he only given us his Shepherd's Kalendar, a masterpiece if any. . . . My Pastorals, bold upon a new strain, must speak for themselves, and the tabor striking up, if thou hast in thee any country quicksilver, thou hadst rather be at the sport than hear thereof.' So be it. Let us be at the sport. In the third eclogue, Rowland—that is, Drayton under his pastoral appellation—sings the praises of Beta—that is, the queen; hear a passage of right Elizabethan poetry:

'Trim up her golden tresses with Apollo's sacred tree,
Whose tutage and especial care I wish her still to be,
That for his darling hath prepar'd
A glorious crown as her reward.
Not such a golden crown as haughty Cæsar wears,
But such a glittering starry one as Ariadne bears.

'Maids, get the choicest flowers, a garland, and entwine,
Nor pinks, nor pansies, let there want, be sure of eglantine,
See that there be store of lillies
(Called of shepherds daffadillies)
With roses damask, white and red, the dearest flower-de-lis,
The cowslip of Jerusalem and clove of Paradise.

'O thou great eye of heaven, the day's most dearest light,
With thy bright sister Cynthia, the glory of the night,
And those that make ye seven
To us the near'st of heaven,
And thou, O gorgeous Iris, with all thy colours dy'd,
When she streams forth her rays, then dasht is all your pride.'

If we compare the *Eclogues* with the pastorals in *The Muses' Elizium*, it will not require a microscopic eye to note the essential difference between the two sets of poems. The former have a spaciousness and breadth which are absent in the latter. There is a real Elizabethan ring about the *Eclogues* which cannot be discovered in *The Muses' Elizium*. For comparison's sake take the following from the Eighth Nymphal:

'Of pansy, pink, and primrose leaves,
Most curiously laid on in threaves:
And all embroidery to supply,
Powder'd with flowers of rosemary:
A trail about their skirt shall run,
The silkworm's finest, newly spun;
And every seam the nymphs shall sew
With th' smallest of spinner's clew.
And having done their work, again
These to the church shall bear her train:
Which for our Tita we will make
Of the cast slough of a snake,
Which quivering as the wind doth blow,
The sun shall it like tinsel shew.'

We may at this juncture stay a moment to consider Drayton as a critic. In the *Elegies* there is one 'To my dearly loved Friend, Henry Reynolds, Esq.; of Poets and Poesy,' and it is a most interesting document for several reasons. In the first place, we get there an account of Drayton's ambition to become a poet; and next, his judgment on various poets, from Chaucer to Drummond. What he says of himself is fairly borne out in his life and works:

'For from my cradle you must know that I
Was still inclin'd to noble poesy,
And when that once Pueriles I had read,
And newly had my Cato construed,
In my small self I greatly marvell'd then,
Amongst all others, what strange kind of men
These poets were; and pleased with the name,
To my mild tutor merrily I came,
For I was then a proper goodly page,
Much like a pigmy, scarce ten years of age.
Clasping my slender arms about his thigh,
"O, my dear master, cannot you," quoth I,
"Make me a poet? Do it if you can."'

And Drayton was made a poet—that is just it. It explains his position exactly, and how it is that, except on very rare occasions, he never touched the higher realms of inspiration and fancy. It is seldom, however, that we see so much penetrating criticism of such varied poets condensed into a few lines as we find in what follows. Some passages may be quoted. Of Chaucer and Gower he writes:

'That noble Chaucer, in those former times,
The first enrich'd our English with his rhymes,
And was the first of ours that ever brake
Into the Muse's treasure, and first spake
In weighty numbers, delving in the mine
Of perfect knowledge, which he could refine
And coin for current, and as much as then
The English language could express to men,
He made it do; and by his wond'rous skill
Gave us much light from his abundant quill.
And honest Gower, who in respect of him
Had only sip'd at Aganippe's brim;
And though in years this last was him before,
Yet fell he far short of the other's store.'

It is but comparatively lately that critics have made the distinction between Chaucer and Gower which Drayton observed.

Following this is a passage which speaks very truly of Sidney and Lilly:

'The noble Sidney with this last [Spenser] arose,
That hero was for numbers and for prose,
That throughly pac'd our language, as to show
The plenteous English hand-in-hand might go
With Greek and Latin, and did first reduce
Our tongue from Lilly's writing then in use,
Talking of stones, stars, plants, of fishes, flies,
Playing with words and idle similes;
As the English apes and very zanies be
Of everything that they do hear and see,
So imitating his ridiculous tricks
They spake and writ all like mere lunatics.'

Have the outstanding features of euphuism ever been more tersely and clearly put? Marlow is hit off in a line or two:

'Neat Marlow bathéd in the Thespian springs,
Had in him those brave translunary things
That the first poets had, his raptures were
All air and fire, which made his verses clear;
For that fine madness, still he did retain
Which rightly should possess a poet's brain.'

Shakespeare's genius was above Drayton's compass, and he only says:

'And be it said of thee,
Shakespeare, thou hadst a smooth, a comic vein,
Fitting the sock, and in thy natural brain
As strong conception and as clear a rage,
As any one that traffick'd with the stage.'

Then Daniel and Jonson are summed up in verse, with others of less note. But never, I think, has such a quantity of sane criticism been condensed into so few lines.

There is much of Drayton's work which must merely be named—for instance, *The Barons' Wars*, *England's Heroical Epistles*, and *The Legends*—as room must be found for a word or two on the sonnet sequence entitled, first, *Idea's Mirrour*, *Amours in Quatorzains*, but afterwards *Idea* merely. Much has lately been written on Drayton as a sonnetteer by Mr. Sidney Lee, Mr. Elton, and by Dr. Beeching, a singularly able and delicate critic. I mention these names here, for, though Drayton's sonnets were not unfamiliar, no one after reading the illuminating works of the critics mentioned can fail to profit much by the care and acumen shown in Mr. Lee's introduction to the Elizabeth sonnets in *An English Garner*, in Professor Elton's *Michael Drayton*, and in Dr. Beeching's edition of Shakespeare's sonnets.

The sonnets were first published in 1594, and frequently afterwards; but the editions of importance in the history of the sequence are those of 1599, 1602, 1605, and 1619. Each of these contains a different number of sonnets, though no edition contains all that Drayton wrote—namely, 107.

It was the fashion to write sonnets in the last decade of the sixteenth century, and many were the sequences published—for instance, *Astrophel and Stella* was first printed in 1591; Daniel printed his *Delia* in the following year, and at the same date appeared Constable's *Diana*. Then in 1593 followed Lodge's *Phyllis*, Watson's *Tears of Fancy*, and in 1594, as has been stated, *Idea*. This sequence was intended, in the first place, to be in honour of Anne Goodere, to whom Drayton gave the title Idea, or the poet's 'realized ideal.' Among the series published at this time Drayton's holds a distinguished place, but it is impossible to read it without being struck with the likeness which some of the sonnets have to those by other writers. There are obviously imitations of Sidney and Daniel, and also of Shakespeare, unless, as Mr. Lee thinks, which appears very improbable, Shakespeare is indebted to Drayton. It seems most likely that, as Drayton copied the manner of Sidney and Daniel, he also copied that of Shakespeare, especially in the sonnets which appeared in 1605 and 1619 only; for though Shakespeare's sonnets were only printed in 1609, they were known before that time, and there is no reason to suppose that a poet

of Drayton's eminence would have had no opportunity of seeing them.

The observant reader will see an obvious likeness between Sidney and Drayton in the sonnet

'My heart was slain, and none but you and I';

and other indications of indebtedness also occur. In the same way there seems no doubt that Daniel influenced Drayton. Compare, for instance, Sonnet 54,

'Yet read at last the story of my woe,'

with Daniel's 47th,

'Read in my face a volume of despairs.'

As for Shakespeare's influence on Drayton, there is no need to make any comment. Read these two sonnets only:

'Why should your fair eyes with such sovereign grace
Disperse their rays on every vulgar spirit,
Whilst I in darkness in the self-same place
Get not one glance to recompense my merit?
So doth the plowman gaze the wandering star,
And only rest contented with the light,
That never learn'd what constellations are
Beyond the bent of his unknowing sight.
O, why should beauty, custom to obey,
To their gross sense apply herself so ill?
Would God I were as ignorant as they,
When I am made unhappy by my skill;
Only compell'd on this poor good to boast—
Heavens are not kind to them that know them most.'

'Since there's no help, come let us kiss and part.
Nay, I have done, you get no more of me,
And I am glad, yea, glad with all my heart,
That thus so cleanly I myself can free;
Shake hands for ever, cancel all our vows,
And when we meet at any time again,
Be it not seen in either of our brows
That we one jot of former love retain;
Now at the last gasp of Love's latest breath,
When, his pulse failing, Passion speechless lies,
When Faith is kneeling by his bed of death
And Innocence is closing up his eyes,
Now if thou wouldst, when all have given him over,
From death to life thou mightst him yet recover.'

To those who know the rhythm of Shakespeare's sonnets there can be little doubt to whose work Drayton looked when he wrote these. And with this last poem these words on Drayton may well be brought to a conclusion. It is a sonnet so great that it may well challenge he greatest, even such a one as

'When, in disgrace with fortune and men's eyes,'

which it resembles in some respects. Nowhere has the tragedy of renunciation been more finely expressed than in Drayton's sonnet. The hopelessness of the first eight lines—we know that all is at an end; in the next four we see the passing of Love; while the last two are a miracle—we cannot compare them, we cannot praise them: we can but wonder.

HENRY ELLERSHAW.

SHALL WE ABANDON TRANSLATION?

THE various questions which have been raised in connection with the reform of the methods of modern language teaching have all been so often discussed already, in our past meetings, in the pages of our organ and elsewhere, that it is not without considerable hesitation that I venture to ask your attention once again whilst I examine the arguments for and against one of the suggested changes.

Much as they have been discussed in the past, however, many of these questions are still open questions, and it is by the comparison of our experience with regard to them and of our reflections upon them, over as wide a range of individuals as possible, that we may hope to arrive ultimately at some conclusion which may have behind it a weight of authority sufficient to impose it upon modern language teachers generally.

And that is, I suppose, one important reason why the Modern Language Association chooses to meet yearly at different centres. It is only thus that the various parts of its large and scattered constituency can have opportunities of debating the questions in which we are all interested. These, then, must be my justifications. When the exponent is new and the composition of the assembly is changed, the debate is virtually a new debate.

As you are all aware, great changes have been effected and are still being effected in the teaching of modern languages. The final issue of such a reform as that which we are considering is, I believe, always the resultant of two forces. There is a revolutionary party, whose intelligence, whose zeal, whose confidence in its own ideals, is doubtless indispensable to overcome the dead weight of prejudice and routine, and there is a party whose more diffident temperament leads it to see advantages in the old order, and to suspect disadvantages in the as yet untried ideals, to both of which the more enthusiastic temper of the revolutionary is blind. Perhaps I should do well at once to strike the keynote of my paper, and frankly to admit that in this particular matter I speak to some extent as a conservative.

The ancient fabric has been pulled down, and we have all acquiesced in its destruction. But whereas the root-and-branch reformers will not hear of building one stone from the ruined structure into the new edifice, I am of those who think that the old methods were not wholly bad, that the new aims are not wholly practicable, nor perhaps even wholly desirable, and that, to resume the metaphor, the new building would suffer neither in strength nor in beauty if some of the old stones were built into it, even though they should be a little rechiselled first.

Such a stone, almost the cornerstone of the old building, is Translation. The fate of translation, as a medium of instruction in languages, is undoubtedly one of the chief questions at issue at the present moment. In a recent issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Mr. F. B. Kirkman quoted a number of curiosities in translation extracted from examination-papers; uncouth monstrosities they were indeed, fitted for a sort of side-show in an educational 'Barnum and Bailey.' Mr. Kirkman asked for an explanation. The next number brought an answer from one whose

name is rightly held in honour as a pioneer in the reform of language teaching. Nevertheless, I am not able to agree with Professor Viëtor's explanation, and still less with his suggested remedy. The explanation is practically that the schoolboy's attitude towards foreign languages is that which is admirably illustrated in the familiar story of the old Scotch lady, who knew that Wellington would beat Boney because 'oor meenister prayed he micht.' 'But,' objected the rationalistic listener, 'might not the French have prayed too?' The old lady, you will remember, was not to be shaken in her faith by any such insidious suggestion. 'Ech, puir jabberin' bodies,' she retorted, 'an' wha would ken what *they* said if they *did* pray?' The schoolboy, says Professor Viëtor, is under the impression that the words of a foreigner do not necessarily make sense, and he is encouraged in this flattering opinion by the use made of translation in the teaching of languages. And the logical remedy is: 'Away with translation!' Now, I do not think that the English schoolboy, or any schoolboy, is really such a fool. If an examiner is confronted with such monstrosities, the natural conclusion is that the test, for some reason or other, is beyond the capacity of the examinee. It may be that the latter has been badly taught, it may be that the former has miscalculated the standard of the examination. The candidate accordingly finds himself confronted with a passage in which he recognises, at most, two or three familiar words. He is expected to do something; what is he to do? What he does is to make a sporting venture, neck or nothing. He knows he is writing nonsense, but trusts he shall have credit for the grain of sense in the bushel of chaff. And after all, is his method not the same, to compare small things with great, as that of the Egyptologist or Assyriologist? He puts down the words he knows, makes a more or less wild shot at others which bear some resemblance to familiar words, and weaves into the whole what sense he can. And who shall say that the early decipherer of hieroglyphics or cuneiform inscriptions was not often as wide of the mark as our hapless schoolboy?

Is there really anything very alarming in this state of things? Does not the child, in the process of learning his own tongue, hear around him speech which is mere jargon to him, and later, speech whose meaning he apprehends only imperfectly, catching a familiar word here and there, and making wild guesses at others? Is this not an inevitable stage in the learning of any language, and by any method? Will the pupil whose studies have been untrammelled by translation never meet a passage which is beyond his comprehension? Nay, rather, is not this imperfect knowledge, this liability to error, an inevitable stage in the learning of anything whatever? If we are to abandon translation because a

learner occasionally makes a hash of it, must we not abandon chemistry because some heedless boy will insist on trying, with startling results, the effect of sulphuric acid on chlorate of potassium? And geometry, because a boy will assume in the course of his demonstration the very theorem he has set out to prove, with a shamelessness calculated to make the ashes of Euclid glow with indignation in their urn? And history, because a boy is known to have said that Sir Walter Raleigh introduced tobacco into England, and when he smoked his first pipe, he exclaimed: 'By the grace of God, Master Ridley, we have this day lighted such a fire in England as shall nevermore be put out'? And the conversational method of teaching languages, because a boy, when asked, 'Womit sehen wir?' has been known to answer: 'Mit der Nase.' Is not the answer to the question 'Why does the schoolboy do these things?' simply 'Because he is a schoolboy, an imperfect being, an ignorant creature who is to be taught.' And would not the only infallible way of avoiding them be to abandon teaching altogether?

Could it be shown, indeed, that this is the normal result of translation, the case would be different. But I have myself, and my experience can scarcely be unique, come across such felicities of language, such appreciative renderings of delicate shades of meaning, in schoolboy papers, as would not have done discredit to published translations of high repute; and if the method can bear such fruit, I do not feel that a case has yet been made out for its condemnation.

I am, of course, aware that the case against translation rests on other grounds, and that this argument was only an attempt to strengthen it. What then are these grounds? What is the nature of the objections advanced against the use of translation in the teaching of modern languages?

These objections are made by the advocates of what we may call the 'watertight-compartment' systems of modern language teaching—those systems which aim at keeping the study of each language as far as possible independent of any other language, and particularly of the mother-tongue. The objections are based upon the observation that the mother-tongue is continually warping the artificially acquired language from its idiomatic form. It is argued that this results from, or at any rate is encouraged by, translational methods of learning languages. The conclusion is that this warping-strain can only be neutralized by ignoring the mother-tongue, by treating the pupil as if he had no language, as if he were dumb, and must be taught anew to speak. The aim of the advocates of these methods thus becomes to build up the knowledge of the new tongue from its elements, more or less as the knowledge of the mother-tongue is built up. And their ideal

may be summed up in the much-used expression, the 'power to think in the foreign tongue.'

Now, that this theory is very attractive, and even that it has a substratum of truth, I do not deny. Were it feasible to exclude the mother-tongue completely, not merely during the actual hours of instruction, but also during the whole period over which the instruction extends, and to lead the pupil through all the countless scenes of life in the new tongue in the leisurely manner customary in Dame Nature's school, he would doubtless acquire a mastery of that tongue scarcely attainable by other methods. But it is not feasible. For every stride made by the new language, the mother-tongue makes a hundred. It is the fable of the hare and tortoise, except that the hare does *not* take a nap. And even were it feasible, it is not desirable. For one certain result would be, that by the time the new tongue was acquired it would be necessary to turn to and teach again the mother-tongue itself, when we should be confronted anew by all the old problems, only put the other way round.

The fact is, we cannot escape this warping-strain, we cannot agree to play that we don't know English. May I quote, in proof of the impossibility of evading this 'pull' of the more familiar upon the less familiar language, a personal experience which others must have shared with me? After a prolonged residence abroad, during which I studiously avoided the use of my mother-tongue, I was horrified to find on my return that I had lost to quite an alarming extent the idiomatic command of my native language. Often I was at a loss for the right word; often I discovered, when half-way through a sentence, that there was no way out at the other end, and I had perforce to abandon the abortive phrase and make a new start. And always I was conscious that my speech lacked life and colour, and that, to use the expressive phrase of the *précieux*, I had 'the gout in my wits.' The fact is, as I discovered on analysing the phenomenon, that I was translating from the foreign language into my mother-tongue. Was this to be traced to my having learned English by translational methods?

Before seeking to draw any conclusion from this axiom, for as such I should be inclined to regard it, that it is impossible to evade the warping effect of the more familiar on the less familiar tongue, let me revert to the closely allied question, that of thinking in a foreign tongue. What do we mean by 'thinking in a foreign tongue'?

We should, I suppose, be commonly said to be thinking in a foreign tongue when the idea which possesses us leaps to our tongue already clad in the language in question, as Pallas is fabled to have leapt fully-harnessed from the head of Zeus, instead of being born a naked little English baby, to be transmogrified after-

wards into a French or German bantling by the addition of the characteristic clothing. If I inadvertently touch a red-hot poker, and announce my sudden repentance by a cry of 'aïe, aïe!' instead of by a cry of 'oh!': or again, if, finding myself at a French railway-station, under the influence of old associations I instinctively say to a porter 'À quelle heure part le train pour Paris?' I should, I suppose, according to the common use of the expression, be rightly said to be thinking in French. But it is an open question whether I am in either case really thinking at all, or whether I am not rather for the moment a powerful argument in favour of extending Descartes's theory of *l'animal-machine* to the lord of creation. The same applies to all the other commonplaces of conversation. I cannot be said to be thinking in the strict sense of the term, until I begin to formulate in the language original thoughts of my own, and not merely the commonplaces which flit upon a thousand lips. In this sense many people never do think at all in any language; and it is very doubtful whether any of us can, at any given period, so think to good effect in more than one language—that in which we happen to be steeped for the time being. If any of us do, it can only be at the sacrifice of the highest efficiency of thought in both languages, as an ambidextrous man cannot hope to cultivate both his hands to the pitch of dexterity which he might have attained by concentrating his efforts upon one hand alone.

But there is another sense in which we may be said to think in a foreign language. If we can read with perfect comprehension the masterpieces of its literature, even though, in the conventional phrase, we may not be able to ask for 'a ticket from Paris to London,' we can think in that language; if not our own thoughts, yet not the thoughts of the mob, but greater thoughts than either.

And the power to think in a foreign language in this sense is that which seems to me to be at the same time the most universally valuable and the most certainly attainable—attainable in a more perfect form, and in a greater number of languages than either of the others, and of equal value to everyone, whether he will ever have occasion to use the language as a means of intercourse or not.

I propose now to examine the bearing upon the question of translation of the conclusions at which I imagine myself to have arrived.

The first of these was, that it is impossible, by ignoring the mother-tongue, or by any other device, to evade the warping effect of the more familiar upon the less familiar tongue, so much so, indeed, that after having been steeped in a foreign tongue long enough to have assimilated it, we find ourselves translating back from it into the mother-tongue. What are we then to do? Give up in despair? No, but frankly accept the situation, and lay our

plans accordingly. We must seek to counteract this warping-strain by putting in counter-stays, *i.e.*, by deliberately contrasting and comparing the two languages at every point, by teaching the new language, not as an independent entity, but everywhere in its relations of agreement with and diversity from the mother-tongue. And this necessarily implies some form of translation *into* the new tongue. I repeat, you cannot keep your compartments watertight; you must know where the leaks are and caulk them; you cannot evade the warp, you must meet it with counter-stresses; the pitfalls are there, the learner must be furnished with a map of them.

My second conclusion was that there are three ways in which we may be said to think in a foreign language; we may think the thoughts that everyone thinks in the words that everyone employs, we may think our own original thoughts, or we may think the thoughts of exceptionally gifted minds after them. These correspond approximately to conversation on every-day topics, to original composition, and to the intelligent reading of texts. The line of demarcation may not always be sharply defined, but they are different accomplishments, and may to a large extent exist independently one of another.

The first is largely mechanical, and depends on unremitting practice. It is, in school, only imperfectly attainable. It is of great practical value, when the occasion arises, but of comparatively little educational value. It is, *in itself*, no more reason why all our children should be taught a foreign language than the convenience of being able to clout a leaky shoe is a reason why they should all learn to cobble. Yet, even apart from its practical value, we cannot afford to ignore the language of conversation, for it is the foundation of the higher forms of the language.

The second form of thinking in a foreign language, the formulation of our own thoughts in it, corresponding to original composition, is even less perfectly attainable than the first. We can never hope to be able to think in a foreign language, in the highest sense of the word, as effectively as in our own, and indeed we can only attain the power to any degree of perfection by some temporary, or even permanent sacrifice, of the efficiency of our own language as an instrument of thought. If, however, this second form of thinking in a foreign language is even more imperfectly attainable than the first, it is, on the other hand, of less practical utility. For which of us would seriously dream of casting his best and most individual thoughts in the mould of a foreign language? But it has considerable educational value as an intellectual exercise, and this value is independent of the degree of perfection whereto we may attain in it. And like the first form, it contributes to our comprehension of the language as a whole.

The third form of thinking in a foreign language, the comprehension of its literature, is more perfectly attainable than either of the other two. It is of profound educational value, of no less value as a source of refined entertainment, and of no mean value, from a purely practical point of view, to the scientific thinker in every field, interpreting science in its widest sense, who is concerned to know what his fellow-workers in other lands are doing.

In this analysis I think I find the explanation of the differences which divide the two schools of modern language teachers. We all admit the importance of approaching the study from all three sides, but we do not agree as to the relative importance of the three, and we do not agree as to the order in which they should be taken. The school whose views I am challenging would, I think, be inclined to regard them as equally important, as equally attainable, and as to be approached broadly in the order in which I have enumerated them, first, conversation, developing gradually into composition, and leading up to the comprehension of literature. *I* should regard the third as the most important, the first and second as chiefly important as being ancillary to it. At the same time I should admit that the first derives considerable subsidiary importance from its utilitarian value, and the second from its value as an intellectual exercise. But I should hesitate to approach the third, to me the most valuable, only through the avenue of the first and second, lest that avenue should be so long that I should never reach it at all. I would not neglect the first two, but I would not run the risk of sacrificing the third to an ideal perfection in them which would be of value only to those of my pupils who should go abroad, especially seeing that these, with the foundation I had given them, might there attain it, in so far as it is attainable, in a tithe of the time and at a tithe of the trouble that it would cost at home. I would, then, approach this third goal by the short cut of translation—translation *from* the foreign language.

I thus find myself in the position of having defended translation both into and from the new language. What form do I think it should take? My explanation can be brief. I am expounding no new theory, but only indicating those to which I adhere. As regards translation from the mother-tongue, I need scarcely say that I do not defend the antiquated method which made of translation a sort of linguistic mosaic-work, for which the stones were furnished, and only had to be fitted into their places, with perhaps a little preliminary rounding-off of corners. But I think the method of imitative translation, based upon a reader, is sound. Here the learner renders exercises whose vocabulary, both of words and of phrases, does not go beyond that with which he has been familiarized in the original

French. In translation of this kind the pupil will be taught to regard the phrase, and not the word, as the unit with which he is working, and the translation will not be so much the fitting together of word with word as the stringing together of phrase after phrase, with the requisite grammatical modifications within the phrase. In that way I believe the tendency to translate too literally from the mother-tongue can be overcome, and a really idiomatic knowledge of the language be imparted. The reader on which the translation is based would, especially in the earlier stages, need to be specially written. The words and idioms used would have to be chosen with great care, according to the frequency of their use in everyday language, and it should be written, not in that style which consists in saying a thing as it has never been said before, but in that style which consists in saying a thing as a well-educated man, who was not posing, would naturally and instinctively say it. It would, in short, contain the thoughts that everybody thinks in the words that everybody uses. And as these were gradually assimilated, as I think they would most quickly and effectively be by such translation, systematically following the broad outlines of the grammar, their use could be made more spontaneous by conversational practice according to the direct methods, without the intervention of the mother-tongue, and by free composition. This exercise would thus naturally lead to what I have called the second way of thinking in a foreign tongue.

As for translation from the foreign language, I would keep that more or less in its traditional form, but with more careful graduation of the texts, and more insistence upon an idiomatic rendering. The texts should always be slightly in advance of the learner's attainments, and would necessitate an intelligent use of the dictionary. For, in spite of weighty opinion to the contrary, I still think the older children should learn the use of the dictionary at school. The teacher would be on the alert to help the pupil to an appreciation of the peculiar associations of each word in its own language, and according as it was prosaic, poetic, archaic, humorous, or slang, would suggest an English word whose use was analogous. By this method I think the learner would attain to a feeling for delicate shades of meaning and expression more quickly and more thoroughly than by any other. This exercise would perhaps make no large contribution to his own practical use of the language, but it would colour it, as our own reading in our own native tongue colours, though it does not create, our own conversational use of language.

It must be clearly understood, that, just as I do not think the use of conversational methods excluded by basing our practical work on a well-devised method of translation

into the new tongue, so I do not think that the use of translation from the new tongue need, or ought to debar us from reading books in the original tongue without the intervention of translation. And these books should always be well within the attainments of the learner. So the student of a musical instrument will at the same time have one difficult piece which he is carefully mastering, several which he knows perfectly and practises constantly to attain mechanical facility, and other fairly easy unknown pieces upon which he will test and train his powers of reading at sight.

I have tried to show that the judicious use of translation is no bar to the acquisition of a living knowledge of a language, and that it is, moreover, the surest way to an accurate knowledge of it. But I also believe that it is further to be recommended by advantages of its own. I am sufficiently old-fashioned to think that as a means of intellectual discipline—forgive me the hackneyed expression—it is unsurpassed. It is also an admirable means of developing and strengthening the command of English. And here let me for my part repudiate the argument, which I believe to be a narrow and unworthy argument, that it is not our business to teach English. I am a teacher in the first place, and only in the second place a teacher of modern languages. Where, however, as is likely to be more and more the case, the English form-master teaches modern languages to his own form, he will not grudge to teach English, but will feel that in so doing he is playing into his own hand.

There is, I believe, another ground on which the use of translation in the teaching of languages is to be recommended. I believe that a language thus studied is, if I may be allowed the metaphor, faster dyed than when learned without the intervention of the mother-tongue. Not only has that been my own experience, but I believe I can adduce psychological arguments in favour of it. Psychology recognises the importance of association of ideas in the phenomenon of memory. Now, when a language is taught on what I have styled the watertight-compartment system, it is associated with nothing but itself, and will remain fresh only so long as it is in constant use. Let it come to be laid aside a while, and it inevitably begins to fade. But if it has been associated with the mother-tongue, the association is more permanent, and the dim memories can be more readily revived through this medium. It has, if I may say so, been bitten into the mind by what the dyers call a *mordant*. The power to speak the language will fade, the power to read it will survive.

There is one final reason, ladies and gentlemen, which leads me to think that the view I have taken is the right one. I look back on the history of human progress in arts,

in letters, in science, in politics, in religion, and I do not find any instance of any permanent advance which has been accomplished by making a clean sweep of past achievements, by ignoring all the fruits of our forefathers' experience, or by regarding them all but as beacons marking the shoals. I find everywhere that the present roots in the past and branches into the future; nowhere is there an entirely new start. I could quote a score of instances; I shall content myself with a mere reference to the history of the French revolution.

I do not think, then, that we can with safety wholly forsake the methods of our predecessors. I have seen it stated as self-evident that a modern language must be taught on entirely different lines from an ancient language. If it is self-evident, I am blind. On somewhat different lines, it may be, but on wholly different lines! Is there, then, no relation between modern and ancient languages? Are the daughters so entirely different in constitution from the mothers that a treatment which is wholly appropriate in the case of the one is wholly inappropriate in the case of the other? I cannot believe that we have nothing to learn from the experiences of generations of teachers of the classical tongues. I do not think we have all the wisdom. I am minded that the history of classical studies presents us with the picture of a battle which is analogous to that which is even now being waged in the field of modern languages, or, rather, which is almost the converse of the present battle, and identical with that which will have to be waged in the future if we are too hasty in our present reform. For you will remember that Latin was at one time taught, or attempted to be taught, as a living language, and was used in the colleges all over Europe as a living language. As far back as 1430 this custom was assailed in France by Mathurin Cordier, as injurious alike to the study of Latin and French. The battle was not won till the time of Rollin, who, in the early part of the eighteenth century, returned to the attack in his 'Traité des Études.' Rollin possesses an *intérêt d'actualité* for us modern language teachers; himself a profound Latinist, he was the first writer on pedagogy who made French and not Latin the medium for the communication of his thoughts thereon, and he argued, so old are the newest questions, *against* the practice of using Latin as a medium for the teaching of Latin. The war against conversational Latin was won—too well won, indeed—for ultimately the very pronunciation was ignored, and at the present day it is a question of reversing this decision, of restoring, as far as possible, the pronunciation, and even of modifying the teaching of Latin by the introduction of conversational methods. So one age overthrows the decision of a former age, and there is nothing new under the sun!

The moral is, that it is the nature of man to fly to extremes, and that we should seek safety in the mean, and I, for my part, think that if we now drive out translation from our modern language classes, we shall only be providing the occasion for a counter-reform at some future date. For we never feel where the shoe pinches until we have got it on our foot.

I thank you, ladies and gentlemen, for the patient hearing you have accorded to my views, which, I suppose, must be anathema to some amongst you. But happily we are not an assembly of politicians or theologians. These gentlemen have generally arrived at truth, and are naturally impatient of contradiction. But we are only seekers after truth, and if this contribution to the search help to lead us where it is, whether it be found to lie where I have pointed, or in a direction diametrically opposed thereto, I shall rejoice equally in the result.

ALBERT G. LATHAM.

NOTE SUR LES EXAMENS EN ANGLETERRE.

UN esprit chagrin à qui ce sujet ne rappelait que de pénibles souvenirs de jeunesse vengeait ses échecs en Sorbonne en répétant que les examens sont la meilleure façon de consulter le hasard. Il ne songeait point qu'à défaut de raisons plus sérieuses, cette boutade suffirait à justifier leur existence. Mais ces raisons sans doute abondent, puisque jusqu'à présent, on n'entrevoit pas la guérison de ce mal qui paraît bien un mal nécessaire. Du moins est-ce là une opinion assez répandue parmi les maîtres et les élèves. A peu d'exceptions près cependant, on s'en tient à des malédictions platoniques que l'on ne songe pas à faire imprimer.

Quelques-uns, il est vrai, malgré le blâme hypocrite qu'ils infligent aux examens se louent au fond d'eux-mêmes de leur imperfection si généralement reconnue—ce sont les refusés — qui trouvent une maigre consolation à pouvoir avec quelque fondement maudire leurs juges et accuser l'iniquité du sort. L'attitude des autres s'explique moins aisément. Pourquoi ne disent-ils mot, n'agissent-ils pas? Est-ce parce que l'on tient le moins à guérir les maux auxquels on est habitué? ou bien estime-t-on qu'il faut être chiche d'efforts inutiles, que les articles de revue ne changent rien à l'ordre des choses et qu'on doit s'épargner le remords d'avoir parlé en vain? Je ne sais; toujours est-il que les examens semblent défier l'opinion et qu'on n'attache point le grelot.

Les examens n'excitent donc ni ne méritent l'admiration de ceux qui les subissent—moins encore celle des autres. Que sont-ils en somme? Un procédé naïf et cruel qui, au mépris de toute loi de

transition, force l'examinateur-juge à diviser avec une raideur catégorique les candidats en deux classes séparées par l'abîme d'un titre : ceux qui sont reçus et ceux qui ne le sont pas.

Si l'on songe que sur quelques pages de travail produit dans les conditions les plus artificielles qui soient, une décision va être prise qui porte sur plusieurs années d'effort et qui pèsera souvent sur toute une vie, le procédé paraîtra rudimentaire à l'excès. Mais nous y sommes faits : c'est tout dire. Aussi bien cette méthode dont la simplicité même met en évidence tous les défauts ne laisse pas d'avoir ses avantages. D'abord, les examens sont confiés à des maîtres compétents. Puis ils sont les mêmes pour tout le monde et c'est une pensée réconfortante. En outre, on est tenté de leur pardonner beaucoup parce qu'ils ne sont pas tout-puissants, parce qu'on peut vivre sa vie sans y avoir réussi, car ils sont moins que d'autres choses nécessaires à l'illusion du bonheur. Enfin, il faut bien l'avouer, ils sont encore ce que l'on a trouvé de mieux : il ne serait pas avantageux de leur substituer un simple tirage au sort.

Si l'on ajoute qu'ils possèdent la vertu de forcer à un travail déterminé — vertu douteuse pour les sujets d'élite, mais inestimable au point de vue de la masse, on comprendra que ce ne soit pas aux examens eux-mêmes que nous en ayons, mais bien à la façon dont ils se pratiquent.

En choisissant au hasard un '*examination paper*' quelconque, on est tout d'abord frappé de la brièveté du temps que l'on accorde aux candidats en comparaison de celui que les réponses semblent exiger. Quelles sont les conséquences de cette disproportion ?

Pour la défendre, on ne trouve guère qu'un seul argument plausible. Elle contraint le candidat à se résoudre rapidement, et à considérer une première pensée comme définitive : habitude excellente peut-être chez un homme d'affaires ou chez un tacticien, mais qui ne saurait être ni la règle ni le but de l'étude.

Les inconvénients sont au contraire de toute nature. Les questions sont-elles faciles ? Alors, seuls, de très rares candidats ne possèdent pas sur le sujet des notions de qualité et de nombre suffisants pour remplir honorablement leur temps et leur papier. La difficulté du classement s'en trouve accrue, et les bons n'ont rien à y gagner : ou bien ils perdent du temps à faire le tri entre leurs idées, ou bien, moins expérimentés, ils se laissent surprendre par l'envie de dire tout ce qu'ils savent et écrivent 'against time.' C'est moins un examen qu'une course : or il n'est pas bon d'introduire partout la notion du sport.

Imagine-t-on le désarroi douloureusement comique, mais non invraisemblable, du malheureux auquel on donne vingt minutes pour développer ces vers de Boileau ?

'Hâtez-vous lentement; et, sans perdre courage
Vingt fois sur le métier remettez votre ouvrage:
Polissez le sans cesse et le repolissez;
Ajoutez quelquefois et souvent effacez.'

Le plus fréquement d'ailleurs, les questions sont difficiles et complexes. Le temps restant le même, le candidat n'a le loisir ni de réflechir ni de raisonner. Pour lui, le problème ne consiste plus qu'à *essayer de se souvenir*. Sa volonté se tend dans cet unique effort. 'L'examination paper' prend alors facilement l'aspect d'un voyage d'exploration dans les moindres replis de sa mémoire; c'est une sorte d'analyse quantitative de son cerveau, si on veut bien nous passer le mélange un peu aventureux de ces images. Il n'en reste pas moins que cette conception déconcertante est la consécration du 'cramming.'

Je concède que grâce à ce système de sujets épineux et rébarbatifs on jette de la poudre aux yeux du profane (par profane, j'entends celui que n'instruit point sur la valeur des épreuves la correction profitable des copies des examinés). Mais si c'est un avantage, il n'est point, je pense, de ceux que l'on avoue.

Le candidat auquel on donne une question complexe comme devant être résolue en un tour de main n'arrive pas à se hausser jusqu'à la conscience des difficultés. Aussi est-ce lui la première victime du bluff: heureusement, il ne se doute pas du mauvais service qu'on lui rend en faisant naître chez lui l'orgueil dédaigneux de la retouche et en développant dans son esprit cette infériorité sociale qui consiste à être facilement content de soi.

Sur l'examinateur, l'effet n'est pas moins désastreux: c'est une victime lui aussi. N'obtenant jamais que des résultats assez piètres—au point de vue absolu, s'entend—il est condamné à voir s'émousser ses facultés critiques: il perd promptement la notion de ce qu'il est en droit d'exiger: il considère le médiocre comme honnête et satisfaisant, et le candidat pour passer n'a plus besoin que d'un tiers des points.

Malgré les modifications profondes qu'ils ont déjà subies, les examens d'à present ressemblent encore trop à ceux d'autrefois. Ils retardent sur la conception moderne de l'enseignement universitaire: ils appartiennent à un temps où le savant *pouvant* tout savoir *devait* tout savoir. Alors, le diplôme affirmait que l'impétrant pouvait à l'occasion servir d'utile livre de référence. Si le but de nos examens est encore de reconnaître la valeur propre des études au sens plus moderne qu'on donne aujourd'hui à ce mot ils doivent, sans tarder, prendre une autre tournure.

La science s'est conquis des domaines nouveaux, s'est assuré la possession plus complète et plus profonde de ceux qui lui appartenaient déjà, si bien que pendant les courtes années où l'étudiant suit les cours de ses maîtres, ceux-ci ne cherchent point autre chose—le temps manquerait—que de pro-

voquer sa curiosité scientifique ou littéraire, de la diriger, de lui donner le goût et le désir d'un travail utile, de le pourvoir de la meilleure méthode, en un mot de fréter son esprit pour la traversée laborieuse de la vie.

Aussi le diplôme ne doit-il plus être l'acte de décès des études, la permission officielle d'enterrer les livres—ce n'est plus qu'un encouragement à continuer le travail, l'assurance que l'on en porte en soi les moyens.

Pour que cette préoccupation sincère des Universités soit traduite plus clairement par les examens, il faut que ceux-ci obligent les candidats à montrer non point tant l'étendue et la profondeur de leurs connaissances que le parti qu'ils savent en tirer. Nous répondrons à l'avance à une objection qu'on ne manquerait pas de nous faire, en disant qu'il ne s'agit point de développer chez eux, grâce à un entraînement systématique perfectionné, les multiples tours de main qui constituent l'art subtil de paraître à peu de frais.

Pour atteindre le but que nous visons, il importe d'abord de rétablir une proportion plus sage entre les questions et le temps—cela fait, on n'aura plus qu'à enseigner aux candidats à *utiliser* ce temps. Et c'est là que nous voulions en venir.

En Angleterre, dans les programmes d'études, il est un sujet entre tous qui nous paraît injustement sacrifié parce que peut-être son utilité immédiate n'est pas aussi directement apparente que celle des autres: c'est la '*composition.*' On se rend si peu compte ici de ce qu'est la chose, que le mot s'applique le plus souvent à un simple exercice de traduction.

C'est là une lacune singulièrement déplorable dans l'éducation anglaise. Si nous la signalons après beaucoup d'autres c'est qu'il y a des choses qu'il faut répéter, c'est que l'exercice de la composition est un merveilleux instrument d'éducation, et qu'on est fort malavisé de se priver plus longtemps de son secours. Nous ne prétendons point, dans les limites d'un article aussi bref, développer tout au long une question aussi importante, mais il n'est pas superflu de préciser quelques-uns des avantages de la composition.

Plus que tout autre, cet exercice est 'utile et intéressant.' Il apprend à l'élève à faire un effort réfléchi du cerveau, à découvrir et à contrôler son intelligence, à juger de la valeur relative de ses idées, partant à les choisir—à les ordonner ensuite, et à les exposer enfin sous la forme qu'elles méritent. Enseigner cela à l'étudiant, c'est lui donner de saines habitudes de *self-criticism* et le pénétrer en même temps du sentiment de la dignité de sa pensée et du respect de sa langue.

Avec une impartialité bienveillante dont nous témoignons fort volontiers, on s'accorde à reconnaître en Angleterre la netteté de pensée et la lucidité d'expression qui distinguent les ouvrages français

et rendent attrayants ceux mêmes qui traitent des sujets les plus arides. On loue la composition harmonieuse de nos bons ouvrages, on admire la souplesse plastique de cette prose qui devient en quelque sorte le physique même de la pensée, bien plus que son vêtement ainsi qu'on a coutume de l'appeler.

Ces qualités de méthode et de style dont nous sommes confus d'offrir un si mauvais exemple, on les attribue le plus souvent à la 'race' française. Sans nier qu'elles soient en partie nationales, nous prétendons qu'elles ont été dirigées et développées par l'éducation au point que, dans leur forme actuelle, elles sont proprement des qualités acquises, à la portée de quiconque *veut* les acquérir. Nous les avons achetées au prix d'un entraînement patient et de laborieux efforts. L'exercice de la composition française—au sens français du mot—est en effet en honneur dans nos écoles, nos lycées, nos universités, et cela depuis longtemps.

Peut-être d'ailleurs sommes-nous allés trop loin—on va souvent trop loin en France—et avons-nous eu le tort de faire parfois de la rhétorique un but, alors qu'elle devrait rester un moyen. C'est là un danger, mais il ne nous paraît pas probable qu'on coure le risque de tomber jamais dans un pareil excès de spéculation en un pays où la valeur de la pensée est estimée en raison directe des actes qu'elle détermine. Si on réussit à greffer ces qualités sur celles déjà si solides de la race anglaise, le résultat sera digne de tous les efforts dépensés pour l'atteindre.

Eh bien, ces qualités de méthode et de clarté dont l'acquisition bénéficierait à toutes les branches de l'étude, les professeurs les donneront à leurs élèves le jour où les examinateurs les exigeront. Il ne faut pas attendre, car on ne saurait trouver une occasion plus opportune. Des universités nouvelles viennent d'être fondées—d'autres le seront bientôt—dans les veines de celles-là coule un sang neuf et généreux. Si son influence vivifiante doit jamais se faire sentir, le moment en est venu. N'ayant d'autres traditions que celles qu'elles empruntent, elles ne doivent pas reculer à secouer le joug d'une routine qu'elles n'ont point créée. Modifiés comme nous le souhaitons, les examens correspondront mieux au besoin du moment. Pas plus que maintenant, sans doute ils ne contenteront tout le monde, mais il sera moins facile de les attaquer, car ils résisteront mieux à la critique—et ils trouveront aussi plus de champions pour les défendre.

F. Boillot.

University of Sheffield.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE fifty-first meeting of the General Committee was held at the University of Durham on Friday, January 4, 1907.

There were present: The Chairman (Mr. Storr), Messrs. Bridge, Eve, Kirkman, Lipscomb, Miss Partington, Miss Purdie, Messrs. Rippmann, Savory, Somerville, Twentyman, the Hon. Treasurer (Mr. Allpress), and the Hon. Secretary (Mr. W. O. Brigstocke).

The following new members were elected:

Frl. R. J. Adelmann, 16, Wyndham Place, Bryanston Square, W.

J. Bithell, The University, Manchester.

F. E. Bunby, University College, Nottingham.

J. E. Michell, Westminster School.

C. Orchard, William Ellis School, Gospel Oak.

Miss Robertson, The University, Leeds.

Miss Shearson, The High School, Exeter.

Miss Smith, Tottenham County School.

Miss Street, Perse High School for Girls, Cambridge.

Professor Welton, The University, Leeds.

L. H. West, West Downs, Winchester.

Miss Whitelaw, Girls' High School, Auckland, N.Z.

Mrs. Yates, Dorset Hall, Merton, Surrey.

The report of the sub-committee appointed to consider the constitution of the Association was postponed until the next General Committee Meeting.

For the sub-committee appointed to investigate the conditions of Modern Language Teaching in Secondary Schools Mr. Kirkman reported that the circulars had been sent out rather too late to obtain sufficient data for arriving at any general conclusions. Only fifty-six replies had been received; this, he thought, was not due to the way in which the circular was drafted. He proposed that further notice should be sent to members, calling their attention to this important inquiry, and asking for the return of the forms with as many details as they were able to supply. The sub-committee was instructed to prepare a draft letter, and submit it to the next Executive Committee Meeting.

The next meeting was fixed for January 26, 1907, at 4 p.m.

The fifty-second meeting of the General Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, January 26, 1907, at 4 p.m.

The following members were present: The President (Mr. Storr) in the chair, Messrs. Allpress, Brereton, Cruttwell, Kirkman, Longsdon, Milner-Barry, Miss Morley, Miss Partington, Messrs. Payen-Payne and Pollard, Miss Purdie, Messrs. Rippmann and Savory, Miss Shearson, Messrs. Somerville and Twentyman.

An interim report from the sub-committee appointed to consider the constitution of the Association was discussed. The committee accepted the suggestion that the Chairman of Committee should not be re-eligible for more than two years in succession after the date of his first election, but a proposal to extend this principle to the Treasurership was negatived. The discussion on the rest of the report was postponed till the sub-committee had finished its work.

Mr. Somerville was elected Chairman of Committee, and Mr. G. F. Bridge Hon. Secretary. Mr. Allpress was re-elected Hon. Treasurer.

The following members were elected to serve on the Executive Committee: Professor Atkins, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Brereton, Breul, Edwards, Eve, Kirkman, Longsdon, Milner-Barry, Miss Morley, Miss Partington, Mr. Payen-Payne, Miss Purdie, Messrs. Savory and Twentyman.

The following new members were elected:

Miss Bell, The Grammar School, Windermere.

R. W. Bates, Royal Naval College, Osborne.

Miss Macirone, Kingsland School, Dalston.

W. J. Haslam, New College, Harrogate.

Miss McIntyre, Myrdle Street H. E. School, Stepney.

Miss Moody, Girls' Grammar School, Rochester.

Miss Reynolds, Stramongate School, Kendal.

A. Robertson, Secondary Day School, West Hartlepool.

Miss C. Houston, Lady Holles School, Hackney.

On the motion of the President, it was unanimously resolved that a cordial vote of thanks be accorded to Mr. C. F. Herdener and Rev. H. Ellershaw for their very efficient arrangements and generous hospitality shown to members of the Association.

The President also proposed that a hearty vote of thanks be passed to Mr. W. Osborne Brigstocke, the late Hon. Secretary of the Association, whose appointment as Chief Modern Language Master to Berkhamsted School, and consequent removal from London, had compelled him to resign the secretaryship. The motion was carried unanimously.

The Committee accepted with thanks the offer of Mr. J. Corner to act as Local Secretary for Somerset. Miss Whitelaw was appointed to act in a similar capacity for New Zealand.

A letter was read from the President of the Société des Professeurs Français, requesting the appointment of a representative of the Association to attend their Annual Dinner on February 2. Mr. Payen-Payne was asked to act as the Association's representative.

On the motion of Mr. Allpress, it was agreed to ask Messrs. Benson, Pollard, and Warren to act as trustees of the invested funds of the Association.

The next meeting of the Executive Committee was fixed for February 23 at 4 p.m.

HOLIDAY COURSE IMPRESSIONS—CAEN.

The Holiday Courses at Caen are held in July and August every year. The town is exceedingly interesting both architecturally and historically, especially to English people, with its constant memories of William the Conqueror. There are numerous churches and abbeys well worth a visit, a good picture-gallery in the Mairie, and the wonderful Bon Sauveur, the State Asylum, a miniature town in itself, containing some 6,000 inhabitants, a sight which should not be missed. For those who wish to go further afield, excursions may be made to Bayeux, with its beautiful cathedral and its unique tapestry; Lisieux, with its quaint and picturesque old houses; Falaise, with its memories of Arlette and William—*toujours Guillaume le Conquérant!*—Cabourg and Trouville, Vire and La Suisse Normande, a beautiful country recalling Derbyshire. The country around is well wooded, and excellent for cyclists, and there is a beautiful river, the Orne, which gives excellent bathing and good boating.

The course comprises conversation classes, lectures on literature and phonetics, composition and lectures on French institutions and manners. In former years phonetics were a strong point, but last year, owing to the sudden illness of the regular professor, a substitute had to be found at a moment's notice. This year every effort will be made to maintain the past reputation of the Course in this branch. Of the other lecturers, the present writer can, of course, only speak from personal experience of those whose classes he attended. M. de Martonne's lectures on Literature were brilliant and always attracted a large audience, and the lectures of M. Lebonnois, especially those on Education in France, were given with a geniality and racy humour that made

them easy to listen to even on the drowsiest of August mornings. The *comptes rendus* of the same gentleman were one of the features of the Course, and most inspiring. Some unlucky wight was chosen to give a summary in French of an act of a play, an analysis of a character, or a dissertation on some question—ethical or literary—arising out of the books read, and then had to submit with what good humour he could to the criticisms of the other students and the professor on his pronunciation, style, and ideas. The sight of a dozen pencils busily noting down points for criticism was no mean ordeal for a nervous person; but, the ordeal once over, he would throw himself with fresh zest into the congenial task of finding motes in other people's eyes.

Several new features are to be introduced this year. Students will be able to choose more definitely between a literary course and a conversational one; arrangements have been made by which a student may spend part of his time at the seaside without interrupting his lectures; and the new direct service from Newhaven will obviate transshipping at Havre, with the prospect of several hours' wait and perhaps a long, slow train journey at the end.

R. E. Y.

REVIEWS.

Notre Dame de Paris. VICTOR HUGO. Edited by LÉON DELBOS, M.A. Oxford, at the Clarendon Press. Extra fcap. 8vo., pp. xxvi+432. (With portrait.)
De l'Allemagne. MADAME DE STAËL. Edited by HENRY WESTON EVE, M.A. Pp. xviii+232. (With portrait.)

M. Léon Delbos has already done much work for which students of French are grateful, but nothing that he has yet published can be compared to his remarkable edition of Victor Hugo's *Notre Dame de Paris*, in the 'Oxford Higher French Series,' of which he is the general editor. The series is intended for upper forms of public schools and for University and private students. It is a new departure, and an attempt is made to provide annotated editions of books which have hitherto been obtainable only in the original French texts. Works intended only for advanced scholars could not be annotated in the way hitherto usual; elementary notes have been omitted and space has been saved for the extension of the texts and for notes at the same time brighter and more interesting. If all the editors have followed M. Delbos, the series will be a most valuable one. His edition of *Notre Dame* is a model of what such a text-book should be. He contributes a critical and deeply interesting preface on Victor Hugo; it deals with 'Sa Vie et son Œuvre,' 'L'Homme et l'Écrivain,' 'Hugo et ses Critiques,' 'Notre Dame de Paris.' The text is that of l'édition Perrotin, 1844, with a few omissions which are entirely justified. There are 351 pages of text and 80 of notes. It is obvious that the test of an editor of *Notre Dame* is a twofold one: what he has explained and what he has left unexplained. On the whole, it is difficult to imagine a more satisfactory set of notes than those contributed by M. Delbos. The student will find all the information that is really useful, and will, no doubt, feel that some of that wonderful imagination which inspires the text has overflowed into the notes.

To be sure, imagination is to many scholars an unpardonable offence: we suspect that it may be so in the eyes of Mr. Eve, the editor of *De l'Allemagne*, in the same series. In this volume we find the same careful printing, good binding, valuable bibliography and preface, and withal many 'imaginative' notes, such as p. 12, l. 1: '*Serié*. The meaning is illustrated by a passage of d'Alembert: "En quoi consiste le style serié? A mettre chaque idée à sa véritable place?"' Why, then, should an editor

who gives us many such notes also mar his comments with such things as: '*S'amuser*, "to enjoy themselves"' (p. 1, l. 27); or '*s'entendre*, "understand each other." The meaning of *entendre* is illustrated by the familiar phrase "*entente* cordiale"' (p. 2, l. 28); or '*s'entendre dire*, "to be told," literally, "to hear said to itself"' (p. 12, l. 24)? It is a great pity that such things should occur amongst so many excellent notes. Mr. Eve is in his element in dealing with a French book on German literature. It is because we expected much from so favourable a conjunction that we regret these blemishes. It must, however, be evident from what we have said that this volume also will be most useful to all who possess, or wish to possess, a literary knowledge of French. The series promises to become an indispensable one.

A History of German Literature. By W. Scherer, translated from the third German edition by Mrs. F. C. Conybeare. Edited by F. Max Müller. Oxford, at the Clarendon Press. 2 vols.

All students of German literature will welcome this new edition of Scherer. The division has been made at Frederick the Great, the first chapter in the second volume being the one on 'The Age of Frederick the Great.' The advantages of this are obvious, and this new edition is sure to be very widely used.

Hossfeld's Spanish Idioms and Phrase-Book. By George R. Macdonald. Hirschfeld Brothers. Pp. 266. Price 4s.

A very useful compilation of Spanish and English colloquial expressions and proverbs arranged under a key-word classification. Students of Spanish will welcome this handy little volume, that will greatly facilitate the solution of the riddles so often presented by Spanish idioms. The author is remarkably happy in his choice of equivalents, and does not hesitate to use even familiar expressions, which aptly convey the peculiar liveliness of the original. Literal translations are avoided, and as much light as possible is thrown on difficulties by alternate renderings. The footnotes are especially interesting, and might with advantage be more numerous.

Salammbô. Gustave Flaubert. Edited by E. Lauvrière.
Mémoires de Madame Campan, 1785-1792. Edited by H. C. Bradby.
Trois Grotesques. Théophile Gautier. Edited by H. T. Chaytor.
Jocelyn. A. de Lamartine. Edited by Émile Legouis.
Oxford Higher French Series. Edited by Léon Delbos. Extra foolscap 8vo.

We have already spoken of this excellent series. The four volumes now before us are as valuable and welcome as those already reviewed. As M. Delbos claims in the preface, they provide works of high literary merit, and, on the whole, the editing has been very ably done. Dr. Lauvrière's preface to *Salammbô* is an admirable piece of work. To select passages from it for quotation would be to do injustice to it. We can only refer our readers to what the author moderately calls *cette rapide esquisse*. Perhaps the designation is the right one; but there is modesty in the use of it, seeing how often the term is misapplied to forty pages of irrelevant matter found in text-books for students. The notes show great self-restraint, and have been composed with much care; and an indispensable index of the more uncommon words takes the place of the lexicon that Sainte Beuve felt the need of. As to the romance itself nothing need be said, except that English readers will probably find this edition a most useful one in every way.

Mr. Bradby's edition of *Madame Campan's Mémoires* (1785-1792) consists of 137 pages of text, a dozen pages of notes (including a glossary of proper names), and a two-page preface. This is as it should be. The *Mémoires* speak for themselves. Only a few notes are required, and these Mr. Bradby has supplied. The book is likely to be of great use and interest, not only to students of French, but also to students of history. What could be more graphic than the following passage? 'Les deux gardes arrivèrent à

l'heure prescrite, et acceptèrent, je crois, chacun cent ou deux cent louis. Un moment après la reine ouvrit ma porte; elle était accompagnée du roi et de madame Élisabeth. Le roi se tint debout, le dos contre la cheminée; la reine s'assit dans une bergère; madame Élisabeth assez près d'elle; je me plaçai derrière la reine; et les deux gardes restèrent en face du roi. La reine leur dit que le roi avait voulu voir avant leur départ deux des braves qui lui avaient donné les plus grandes preuves de courage et d'attachement. Miomandre prit la parole, et dit tout ce que ces mots touchants et honorables pour les gardes devaient lui inspirer. Madame Élisabeth parla de la sensibilité du roi; la reine reprit de nouveau la parole pour insister sur la nécessité de leur prompt départ. Le roi garda silence; son émotion, pourtant, était visible, et des larmes d'attendrissement remplissaient ses yeux. La reine se leva, le roi sortit, madame Élisabeth le suivit. La reine avait ralenti sa marche, et, dans l'embrasure d'une fenêtre, elle me dit: "Je regrette d'avoir amené le roi ici; et je suis bien sûre qu'Élisabeth pense comme moi! Si le roi eût dit à ces braves gens le quart de ce qu'il pense de bien pour eux, ils auraient été ravis! mais il ne peut vaincre sa timidité."' Such a passage explains many things, and it would be well if students reading the history of 1785-1792 always read such a book as this in conjunction with their history. It is, of course, difficult to make all the arrangements that are required for working various subjects of the curriculum together, but such editions as the Oxford Higher French Series successfully dispose of at least one serious difficulty—the want of suitable text-books.

Gautier's *Trois Grotesques* — Villon, Cyrano de Bergerac, Paul Scarron—is not a book that can claim to be useful, as the *Mémoires de Madame Campan* are useful. But this is no drawback. The book was written by a true 'amateur,' and it has been edited by a true 'amateur.' The volume is, therefore, altogether delightful —one we enjoy and read again, and then hand on to our best students to be enjoyed and read again. The notes cover about thirty-five pages and the introduction seventeen. Mr. Chaytor's name is a guarantee for sound editing.

The *Jocelyn* of M. Legouis is the only volume of the four with which we cannot feel altogether satisfied. There may have been very good reasons for putting the numerous variants into the notes, but we cannot conceive any reasons sufficient to justify depriving the reader of the convenience of variants at the foot of the page. At the end of the book they will be relatively useless. Why, in an edition of this kind, could not this very serious amount of extra trouble have been given and taken? We heartily welcome this new edition of *Jocelyn*, and wish it success. The poem deserves to be read much more than it is, and we sincerely hope it will lead some young students to a fuller study of Lamartine's life and work. The field is an interesting one, and full of promise for a persevering student. We hope, however, that M. Legouis is the last who will drag out of well-merited oblivion the ridiculous criticisms of which Englishmen and others have from time to time been guilty. Perhaps this had to be done; M. Legouis is the better judge. Yet we cannot but regret that he should have devoted so much of his space to knocking down what most of us would have consented to see dismissed with a line or two. We feel as we might if we found the man from whom we expected a lantern-lecture forgetting to lecture about the slides in his anxiety to tell us all the different mistakes former lantern-lecturers had made with the same slides. It is no doubt exhilarating; and perhaps, after all, it will attract the right students more readily than a less combative preface would have done.

Shorter Fables of La Fontaine. With Vocabulary. Edited by A. H. WALL, M.A. (Blackie's Little French Classics.) Fcap. 8vo., 59 pp.; 6d.

The publishers are reissuing this well-known series with the addition of French-English vocabularies. The 'Short

Fables' have been carefully edited, and the notes, which are clear and to the point, show the influence of modern methods in the use of synonymous explanations in French. These might even have been extended and placed as footnotes beneath the text, but the complete success of such explanations is assured only when they are based scrupulously upon vocabulary previously and thoroughly assimilated. An unpretentious note treats briefly of rhymes and syllabic structure of the verse. Some idea might have been given of the essential difference in rhythm between English and French poetry. The whole subject is treated with undeserved neglect in our schools. We find the omission of 'La Cigale et la Fourmi' from such a collection hard to explain.

CORRESPONDENCE.

PURE ENGLISH.

In these days much is heard—and how rightly too !—of cultivating our children's imagination, love of beauty, and reverence for the noble past. And so we tell them fairy-tales, as many as we can, and classic myths, when we love to see their eyes get big and shining and their faces round with wonder, while less and less often we have to hear with a cold gasp the question of young twentieth-century knowingness: 'Please, it isn't *true*, is it ?'

We teach ballads, too, and folk-songs carefully selected and adapted, for we must make our children very English and patriotic. We show them, also, many pictures, and let them draw copies of the very boats that Hengist and Horsa sailed in, nor do we like to think that King Alfred was above burning the cakes. In a word, we try to give colour to the minds of the children. But when it comes to the spoken English word, what an ugly, ugly hue of Cockneyism overspreads what would otherwise become the fair form of speech !

Our French classes can tell us—in an accent that really does not belong to Stratford-atte-Bowe—that the father is ploughing in the field, the mother is digging in the garden, while idle Henry watches the swallows, and many other interesting things ; and we are duly pleased—nay, we are proud. Must we, then, still continue to 'speak courteously' with King Arthur to 'The Lĭdy of the Līke,' or to go about proclaiming with melancholy Jaques that 'All the world's a stĭge'? What ill effects on the nerves of poor English teachers from the continual hearing of Shakespeare (for instance) recited with varying degrees of Cockney twang ?

Yet how to get purity of vowel-sound ? Attempts seem, in the majority of cases, to be fruitless ; improvement is but momentary, and, with the knowledge that, once outside the school walls, the pupil is probably in an atmosphere of pure Cockneyism, continued effort seems almost futile. If it be true that there is a remedy for all ills under the sun, where is the medicine that can cure this sickness of vowel-sounds ? Have the ardent friends of phonetics any suggestions ? Should we introduce phonetic drill into the very elementary classes, as is done, I believe, in America ? Or would that be confusion worse confounded in the minds of the poor babes, and what would be the future of English spelling ?

I write as a suffering patient seeking a remedy, and do not venture to suggest the cure. Perhaps, after all, patience and perseverance on the part of the teacher are the best prescriptions, and though we ourselves may have to continue to suffer, yet a generation of teachers to come, spiritual descendants of ours, may enter into a fair inheritance of pure-pronouncing London children.

A. D. S.

LEAVING NO BLANKS.

In your criticism on the School Examination (Junior Standard) of the University of London, you quote the following directions at the head of the French paper :

'1. Translate into good English, *leaving no blanks.*'

And, again, in the body of your criticism on the paper you state, in reference to certain of the candidates:

'When they came to an unfamiliar word they either left a blank (which teachers should never tolerate) . . .'

Now, I suppose we are all agreed that it is an excellent thing to induce the pupil to divine, if possible, the meaning of any word or passage, and thereby to exercise his powers of invention and discovery. But every good principle pushed to excess becames a vice. One can easily imagine cases in which, owing to ignorance of the words, guessing becomes absolutely senseless. Surely it is preferable that the pupil in such cases should be allowed to exercise the right of private judgment, and leave a blank instead of being compelled consciously to perpetrate gibberish? This riding of a theory to death must inevitably tend to bring what is otherwise an excellent idea into disrepute. I feel certain that I am only voicing the opinion of many practical teachers when I say that I trust that next year the wording will run: 'Translate into good English, leaving, if possible, no blanks.'

CLOUDESLEY BRERETON.

[Speaking with some experience of examinations, I am confident in saying that the change suggested would have no practical effect whatever. If the passage is well chosen and the candidate is well prepared, there should be no omissions in the rendering; if the passage is badly chosen, a good candidate should still be able to make reasonable, if not quite correct, guesses at the meaning; if he is ill-prepared, the addition of 'if possible' will not prevent him from making wild guesses or from leaving blanks, whichever alternative his teacher has tolerated.

It may be suggested that the same argument might be urged against the addition of 'good' ('Translate into *good* English') and of '*leaving no blanks*'; and I agree that probably the addition of these words makes no difference at the time of the examination. Any practical teacher, however, who looks at the paper with an eye to preparing pupils for this examination will be likely to make a mental note that credit will be given for a good English style, and for alertness in deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context or from French or English words of similar form. That the candidate will derive any advantage from senseless guessing, he will hardly be led to suppose, however low may be his estimate of the examiner's capacity.—W. R.]

FROM HERE AND THERE.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, ROYAL HOLLOWAY COLLEGE.—Miss Ellen C. Higgins, who has been appointed Principal in succession to Miss Penrose, took first-class honours in English at the University of London, as well as in mathematics at Oxford.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.—The University Scholarship in German of the value of £70 for one year has been awarded to Mr. Leonard A. Willoughby, B.A. (University College).

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE. — The Duke of Devonshire, in a letter to the *Times* of February 16, refers to the pressing needs of the University, and we are glad to see that he includes a reference to Modern Languages. It is stated that—

'The Lectureship in English has a stipend of £110 a year; it should be converted into a professorship, and an adequate stipend should be attached to the chair. The direction of the Modern Language Teaching falls on two readers. Professorships should be established in at least French and German. The Russian lectureship should be permanently endowed, and lectureships should be established in Spanish and Italian.'

With these recommendations we are in complete sympathy. Indeed, we regard it as little short of scandalous that Oxford

and Cambridge are still without professors of French and German. We will not say anything about a recent debate on the subject at Oxford; the subject is too painful.

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ST. ANDREWS UNIVERSITY. — Mr. Stanley Nairne, M.A., has been appointed Assistant Professor in English.

♣ ♣ ♣

THE ANGLO-FRENCH ASSOCIATION (L'ENTENTE CORDIALE) offers two scholarships of £20 and two of £10. The examination for the former will be held on May 18; further information from Mr. W. H. Sands, 6, Fig Tree Court, Temple. Candidates for the latter will be examined on November 2, and can obtain particulars from Mr. J. Belford, Broglence Villa, Melrose Terrace, West Kensington Park, W.

♣ ♣ ♣

THE FRENCH DRAMATIC SOCIETY AT CAMBRIDGE, organized by Mrs. J. G. Frazer, gave very successful performances of Racine's *Les Plaideurs* and Molière's *Le Médecin malgré lui* on February 11 and 12.

Excellent performances of Molière's *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* have been given by the boys of the Whitechapel Foundation School. Great credit is due to Mr. F. R. Robert, their master, who spared no efforts in coaching them. A number of schools were invited to send boys and masters, and the experiment was so much appreciated that the Head-master, Mr. Carter, after consultation with Mr. Robert, has decided to give performances of Molière's *L'Avare* at the end of the Christmas Term. Such enterprise deserves warm encouragement.

♣ ♣ ♣

A correspondent writes:

'The *Athenæum* of January 12 contains the following: "With the exception of Béranger, Alfred de Musset is probably the only French poet who does not require of English readers a special training in order to be appreciated." What does the writer mean?'

We offer a Prize of One Guinea for the best article, illustrated by quotations, supporting or refuting the opinion quoted from the *Athenæum*. The articles should reach the Editor not later than May 10.

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, November, 1906: Idola Pulpitorum—The Pitfalls of the Practical Teacher (Professor J. Adams). December, 1906: Ditto, Classics (H. G. Hart). January, 1907: Ditto, English (A. Burrell); Some Thoughts on School Libraries (E. Young). February, 1907: Idola Pulpitorum—French (C. Brereton); Reports of Educational Meetings.

SCHOOL WORLD, November, 1906: The Art of Oral Questioning (T. Raymont); The Use of Oral Composition in Junior Classes (N. L. Frazer). December, 1906: The Best Authors for School Reading (J. Oliphant); Language Teaching in the Sixteenth Century (H. J. Chaytor). January, 1907: Paraphrasing in Practice—I. (N. L. Frazer). February, 1907: Reading Aloud (F. Johnson); The Direct Method of Teaching French (S. A. Richards); The Use and Abuse of Public Examinations (I.: S. A. Burstall; II.: J. E. Barton).

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, December, 1906: School Discipline (J. L. Paton). January, 1907: Problems of the Secondary Curriculum; Spelling Reform (Principal Donaldson). February, 1907: Modern Language Teaching.

SCHOOL, December, 1906: The Status and Remuneration of Assistant Masters (C. C. Hodgson). January, 1907: The Supply of Books in Schools (G. H. Clarke); The Public Library and the School (T. Coulson); English Literature in the Secondary School (C. W. Edmunds).

THE A.M.A., November, 1906: Spelling Reform (B. B.); Aims and Methods in the Teaching of Languages to Boys (E. C. Kittson).

THE TEACHERS' GUILD QUARTERLY,

October, 1906: The Legal Status of Assistant Teachers in Endowed Schools; The Teaching of Systematic Grammar (Frances R. Gray).

LE MAÎTRE PHONÉTIQUE, November, 1906: Reviews of Savory's Transcription of Calvert and Hartog's *First French Book* (D. Jones) and Passy's *Les Sons du Français* (J. G. Ewert). December, 1906: Simplified Spelling (H. Sweet).

BULLETIN DE LA SOCIÉTÉ DES PROFESSEURS DE LANGUES VIVANTES, October, 1906: Une Université Anglaise, Oxford (Ch. Garnier); Les Progrès de l'Échange International (Toni-Matthieu). November, 1906: La Liberté dans la Méthode Directe de M. Max Walter (Ch. Sigwalt). December, 1907: La Portée des Études de Langues Vivantes (L. Weill).

OUTRE-MANCHE, October, 1906: La Méthode Orale à l'École primaire allemande (G. Raphael); L'Application de la Phonétique à l'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes (G. Camerlynck). November, 1906: The Present Position of Primary Education in England (M. Fry); Quelques Renseignements à l'usage des Étrangers sur la Vie Française (H. C.). January, 1907: Henri Heine, penseur (H. Lichtenberger); Bref Historique de l'Enseignement primaire en France (H. Cordelet); La Timidité chez l'Enfant (L. Rémy).

NEUERE SPRACHEN, November, 1906: Studium und Examen der Neuphilologen (E. Sieper); Deutsche Grammatik nach moderner Methode (A. Altschul); Les Plosives Françaises (P. Passy and H. Klinghardt). December, 1906: Die praktische Ausbildung der Neuphilologen (F. Dörr); Französisches P geprüft von und an einem Pariser (H. Klinghardt). January, 1907: Aneignung und Verarbeitung des Wortschatzes im neusprachlichen Unterricht (M. Walter); English Boys' Fiction (H. Smith).

NEUPHILOLOGISCHE BLÄTTER, October, 1906: Ziel der Erziehung (A. Wagner). December, 1906: Friedrich Nietzsche (E. Dietenberger).

BOLLETINO DI FILOLOGIA MODERNA, December, 1906: La Questione Ortografica nelle lingue francese e inglese (T. Lerario).

MODERNA SPRÅK, October, 1906: Études Littéraires sur les grands Écrivains du XIXème Siècle—Chateaubriand (C. Polack); Dickensian Archaisms (L. D. Cane).

EDITORIAL NOTE.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly; the next number will be issued on April 2nd. The price of single numbers is 6d.; the annual subscription is 4s. The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Modern Language Association who have paid their subscription (10s. 6d.) for the current year. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 3, South Hill Park, London, N.W.; and subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45 (*not* 72), Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

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EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

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GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

THE American translation of Paulsen's book on German Universities has lately attracted a good deal of attention to these institutions. Their efficiency depends mainly, as Professor Sadler points out in the preface to the English edition, upon their having able teachers, sufficient State aid, and freedom for both student and professor. It is a singular fact that among the many hundreds of foreigners studying there so few Englishmen are to be found. This is, perhaps, partly due to the fact that the cheapness with which a course can be pursued there, or the congenial life to be enjoyed, are not fully grasped in this country. It can be urged, too, that we have plenty of Universities of our own, so that there is no need to go elsewhere. This is certainly partly true, but it is open to question whether they offer, in all cases, what the lover of learning and pleasure searches after. A few words, therefore, on this subject may not be altogether without interest.

German Universities are open to a foreigner virtually on the same conditions that they are to a German. To qualify for matriculation he has to produce satisfactory proof of having passed in his own country an examination, or of having received a training equal in merit and efficiency to that required by the professors from students of their own nationality. At a few places—such as Heidelberg —a passport has also to be produced.

Once admitted a member of the University, the foreigner receives every possible consideration, and will have—if he is able to adapt himself easily to altered surroundings — a very agreeable time.

Should he, however, be an adept at fault-finding, and begin arguing against everything in accepted use —ranging from the Continental Sunday down to traction by dogs —he will naturally find that some of his fellow-students will wonder why he crossed the water, and wish he had remained on the other side.

The expense is ridiculously cheap, which is due to the fact that it is mostly defrayed by the governments of the different German States. Every foreigner completing a course of three years costs the German taxpayer, at a rough figure, sixty or seventy pounds. It is even possible to keep an academic term by attending four hour-lectures a week at a cost of one pound. The average terminal outlay in all faculties, except the medical, which is about double, would be five or six pounds. There are only two terms in the year. A student wishing to proceed to the doctor degree should allow fifty pounds for it.

Most interesting is the character of the teaching. The student is not only taught to accumulate facts, which are often in themselves dry-as-dust, but to utilize them — by which process, if already uninteresting, they rapidly become otherwise. He is introduced from the very first to research work, and kept at it right down to the end of his academic career. At some places he is allowed to specialize within a subject. For instance, should he take up English language and literature, he may be permitted to devote himself almost exclusively to the literature, if he has a decided bent in that direction, and only show a general knowledge of the other branch, or *vice versa*. This depends, however, upon the individual views of the examining professors. For the doctor degree it is necessary, as a rule, to take up one main subject and two secondary ones. The thesis should be selected by the student himself, although the professors are always ready to guide in the choice, as well as give him every assistance during the time he is working it out.

A dissertation must show signs of original research work, and be printed, in the event of the candidate being successful in the oral examination, at his own expense. The above-mentioned method of work is one of the main factors which constitute the strength of the German University system. Another is the *akademische Freiheit*.

The student selects his University, his subjects, and lectures. He can go from one seat of learning to another, although it is not advisable to change too frequently. It is, however, still possible in Germany for a student to complete an academic term at six different Universities, and finally take his degree, all the same, at the expiration of the three years. In summer the towns right in the heart of the country, with beautiful scenery in the immediate neighbourhood, such as Heidelberg, Marburg, and Freiburg, are sought out by the students.

On the other hand, many of the same are to be found in the winter huddled up together in the students' quarters of large cities, such as Leipzig, Munich, and Berlin. They live how and where they like. There is no collegiate life, although the *Corps* and *Verbindungen* are a somewhat near approach to it. Duelling is almost exclusively confined to these corporate bodies. Although this dangerous practice is gradually dying out, scars are still greatly in evidence. Some of them are known to be self-inflicted in order to give their owners a more martial aspect.

This academic freedom bears a striking contrast to the restrictions of Oxford or Cambridge, which are simply the preservation, more or less, of the monastic customs of a bygone age. In Germany proctors and bulldogs are unknown. There are no chapels to keep in the early morning or porters' lodges to creep through late at night. The pleasure-bent student has plenty of elbow-room, and knows how to make use of it. With walks over hill and dale, sitting in a *Biergarten* and listening to some town orchestra play as only a German town orchestra can, and rarely seeing the inside of a lecture-room, his life seems for a brief space but one long *gaudeamus igitur*. Such a one has no need to envy the 'flannelled' Briton careering over the field after a cricket-ball in the heat of a summer day, or keeping himself warm on a winter afternoon by kicking an inflated piece of leather about.

Finally, in these times of the *entente cordiale* it would have a salutary effect if more cultured Englishmen made a point of availing themselves of the great educational advantages which the German Empire offers them with open hands. It would give them a keener insight into German life, thought, customs, and ideals, and an opportunity of seeing their German cousins as they see themselves.

A. B. YOUNG.

THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH LANGUAGES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

THE language question in South Africa is of considerable importance politically and educationally. It presents at the same time features that are not without interest to the student of languages. The aim of the present paper is to give a brief account of the matter in these three phases—political, educational, and philological; not, however, treating each separately, for the connections between them are too intimate for that method to give us a clear view of the situation.

I must ask you to bear with me while I give you a few dates and historical facts, which will render more intelligible much of what follows.

The Cape received its first Dutch settlers in 1652. Located in the region of Cape Town, they spread thence, and in about thirty years' time founded, thirty miles

eastwards, the town of Stellenbosch, at the present time an educational seat of Dutch rather than English influence. In 1689-90 there arrived some 200 Huguenot refugees, driven from France by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. These formed about a quarter of the white population. Compulsory distribution among the Dutch rendered rapid their assimilation into the Colony and the suppression of the French language. A 'de Villiers' is now called Englishwise 'de Villiers,' or Dutchwise 'de Viljee.' The two towns of The Paarl and Frenchhoek, forty-nine and sixty-six miles respectively from Cape Town, are, however, still centres of Huguenot descendants. For all practical purposes, owing to intermarriage, the two races were soon fused into one. By the beginning of the nineteenth century the settlers had spread as far as the present Port Elizabeth, and their number amounted to about 20,000. Of their condition at that time Mr. Basil Worsfold writes: 'They were probably the most backward European community then existing in the Old or New Worlds. Most of them possessed no books but Bibles and hymn-books.'

The British entered into permanent possession of the Cape in 1806, just one hundred years ago, and in 1820 sent out some 5,000 (some authorities say 3,000) emigrants to Algoa Bay, on which is situated the present Port Elizabeth, founded at that time, but still called The Bay, or De Baai, over a considerable area of the Colony. This was the first settlement of British colonists. Though in number they were only equal to about one-eighth of the Dutch colonists, their arrival led to changes in the Constitution. Schools were established to promote instruction in English, English was ordered to be the official language, the coloured population were placed under the same laws as the Europeans, and shortly afterwards there followed the emancipation of the slaves. These and like acts were so repugnant to the Dutch that, in 1835, 10,000 Boers started on the 'Great Trek.' These Boers (*i.e.*, farmers) established settlements in the parts now known as the Orange River Colony, the Transvaal, and Natal. There was already at Port Natal, the present Durban, a small colony of Englishmen, who had settled there in 1824. The history of the Dutch in Natal cannot be entered into here; suffice it to say that in 1847 the majority of them, in resentment of various measures of the British Government, withdrew northward of the Vaal River. In 1848-50 some 4,000 new British settlers arrived in Natal, the white population of which has been chiefly British ever since. In 1852 the independence of the Boers beyond the Vaal was recognized by the Sand River Convention, and in 1854 the Orange Free State was established by the Convention of Bloemfontein.

These few historical notes will suffice to explain how it is that there are regions and districts that are essentially Dutch and others that are essentially British. Of the four colonies the only one that can be spoken of as British, so far as population and language are concerned, is Natal. In this connection I will quote a paragraph from the *Guide to South Africa*, by A. S. and G. G. Brown: 'English is spoken over the greater part of the civilized portion of South Africa, but in the country districts, among the Boer farmers, Dutch holds its own as the language of the people. In the western portions of the Cape Colony the country people are mainly Dutch, but it is rare to find a man who is unable to speak the two languages. Further east the influx of the English settlers of 1820 has turned the scale, and in Port Elizabeth there is not even a Dutch church. In Natal Dutch is seldom heard, and English is the only language in official circles, whereas in the Cape Colony Members may address the House in either language. In the Orange River Colony and the Transvaal the official language is English.'* I would add that, in these two

* The new Constitution for the Transvaal permits the use of both languages in the debates of the Council and assembly.

colonies, when a notice is intended really for the public information of all, it is necessary to issue it in Dutch as well as in English. This fact is recognized in the new Constitution.

Before the late war English was gaining ground in the Orange River Colony and in the Transvaal, more in the former than in the latter. The racial feeling revived by the Jameson Raid had, however, rather checked its progress. The war has had a remarkable double effect; it has intensified the determination of the Dutch not to lose their own language, and at the same time the number of children learning English has enormously increased. The number of pupils in the present English Government schools is treble or quadruple the number that there were in the State schools under the Dutch régime. In those the medium was Dutch, and some English was taught. In the English schools English is the medium, and some Dutch is taught. Yet at the present time in Dutch-speaking centres, though English is the language inside the schools, Dutch is the language outside of them. Thus the war has materially altered the educational conditions in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, but not in Natal or the Cape. The effect of the trend of present politics in South Africa has been to prevent a certain proportion of the children from attending the Government schools in the two northern colonies, owing to the institution of rival Dutch schools. In the Orange River Colony the Dutch schools have now amalgamated with the Government, and the Dutch have gained thereby certain powers for which they were fighting, notably a considerable share in the management of the schools and in the appointment of the teachers. Such an amalgamation has not yet been reached in the Transvaal.

With the attitude of the Dutch on the language question we can at all events, to some extent, sympathize. In reversed positions we should certainly feel much as they do. The same question presents itself in Alsace-Lorraine, Poland, and Hungary—the resistance of the conquered to the language of the conqueror. The Dutch are not, however, averse to their children learning English. They are far too shrewd not to realize the advantages of a knowledge of the language. Only they must not forget their ancestral tongue, nor must the British Government attempt in any way to suppress it.

Now the language of a country has in various ways an influence on its inhabitants. A highly-developed language, one with an extensive vocabulary, with a power of accurate expression, with a heritage and continuous output of good literature—such a language is one of the great factors in maintaining the progress of the nation which possesses it. Reversed conditions produce a reversed result. What is, then, this Dutch language? It is really many, or rather many dialects, the extremes of which are hardly mutually intelligible. Two boys who entered my school direct from Holland could hardly understand the form of Dutch they heard around them. We need not for our present purposes enter into a detailed consideration of the differences that exist between Holland High Dutch, Biblical Dutch (such as is used in the Church services), and Afrikander Dutch. It will be sufficient to realize that the Afrikander Dutch is sufficiently distinct from pure High Dutch for the speakers of the one not to care to speak the other; that it has lost many of the grammatical inflections of Holland Dutch, which itself varies in its literary and colloquial form; that it has further preserved many words and phrases that have become obsolete in Holland, and has adopted words either made new or borrowed from the natives, and uses some words in new senses.

Quite apart from these stands the 'Taal.' 'Taal' is simply the Dutch for 'Language,' but is often used to mean what is otherwise spoken of as 'Cape Dutch.' We realized

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Presumably, the same permission will be granted in the Orange River Colony Constitution.

earlier in this paper the backward condition of the Boers who trekked away from the Cape Colony, possessing no books but Bibles and hymn-books. An emigrant folk, with no schools, no educative or literary influences to act as a corrective, their children learnt a careless speech from carelessly speaking parents. The language has in a short space of time considerably developed tendencies already existing in the colloquial Dutch, of which it is the descendant. (The popular dialects of Groningen and Friesland contain many of the peculiarities of the Cape Dutch ; but in South Africa this is no longer a dialect, but the spoken language of the country.) Inflections dropped, case endings gone, strong verbs made weak, vowel changes developed, have converted an originally largely synthetic language into an almost purely analytical one. Let us take some examples. The Dutch definite article, properly of three genders with case endings, as in German, has been reduced first to two forms —*de* and *het*, and finally in Taal to one word only—*de*. Case endings and gender endings have likewise vanished in possessive adjectives such as *mijn*, *zijn*, etc., and the indefinite article *een*. This is the case also in Afrikander Dutch, and is now allowed in the Cape examinations. Medial consonants are largely dropped : *vogel* becomes *vo'el*, *weder* becomes *weer*, *wagen* becomes *wa*, etc. Pronouns have changed : 1st person, *ik*, remains ; 2nd sing., *jij*, or unaccented *je*, replaces *gij* or *u ;* 3rd sing., *hij*, remains ; 1st plur., *wij*, is replaced by *ons ;* 2nd plur., *gij* or *u*, is replaced by *jullie*, corrupted form of biblical *gijlieden* (you people) ; and 3rd plur., *zij*, is replaced by *hullie* (them people). Some of these forms occur also in the spoken Dutch of Holland, particularly in the dialects mentioned above ; but the changes have not so completely cut out the literary forms. Verbs have lost their infinitive ending, *-en : brengen* becomes *breng*. Past participles have all been made weak and consist of the clipped infinitive with the prefix *ge- : brengen*, *gebracht*, is *breng*, *gebreng ; vinden*, *gevonden*, is *vind*, *gevind*. There is a tendency to use the verb 'to have' as the only auxiliary. The past indicative has vanished except in a few verbs—*e.g.*, *was*, *had*, *wou*, *zou*. The compound tense takes its place : *ik kwam* becomes *ik is gekom*, or even *ik het gekom*. Verbs have lost their personal endings entirely, more, indeed, than has been the case in English.

'To be,' pres., runs, *ik is*, *jy is*, *hy is*, *ons is*, *jullie is*, *hullie is*, instead of *ik ben*, *je* or *u bent*, *hij is*, *wij zijn*, *gij* or *u zijt*, *zij zijn*.

Various consonants have undergone change of sound. Fricative *ch* has become *k : schaam* is pronounced *skaam*. The diminutive ending *-tje* is pronounced *-ki : kleintje*, *klinki ; mannetje*, *manniki*.

Various vowel sounds have also changed. *Ee* (*long e*) has become English *ee*, and *oo* (*long o*) has become English *oo : school* (*skūl*), *boom* (*būm*). The *ee* sound is often diphthongal (*īə*), *weet* (*viət*).

The negative *niet* is frequently duplicated *: Ik kan ni vandaag kom ni* for *ik kan niet vandaag komen* (I cannot come to-day). This is supposed to be due to the French *ne . . . pas* through Huguenot influence. Different words are used for the same thing : *Saambrengen* for High Dutch *medebrengen ; snaaksch* for *raar* (strange) ; *hoekom* for *waarom* (why) ; *praat* for *spreken ; amper* for *bijna* (nearly) ; *banja* for *zeer* or *erg* (very), (these two latter are Malay words ; *amper* is known in Holland) ; *kopzeer* for *hoofdpijn* (headache) ; *mierenhoop* for *termitenheuvel* (ant-heap), etc.

Or the same word is used for different things. High Dutch *ezel* (ass) means in Taal 'mule,' and *ezeltje* is used for 'ass' ; *beker*, 'cup,' means in Taal 'jug.'

The result of such changes is to make the languages often very divergent. In addition to these changes, the vocabulary is simpler, and consequently the phraseology is often different. Some examples will illustrate these points : 'Why have you come so late ?'—'*Waarom zijt u zoo laat gekomen ?*' '*Hoekom is jullie zoo laat gekom ?*' 'We had to go and fetch the donkeys.'—'*Wij moesten de ezels gaan halen ;*' '*Ons het*

de ezeltjes moet gaan haal.' 'We had not yet finished our work.'—'*Wij hadden ons arbeid nog niet geëindigt ;*' '*Ons was met ons werk nog ni klaar ni.*' 'They nearly broke the cups.'—'*Zig braken bijna de bekers ;*' '*Hullie het de koppies amper gebrek.*' 'Do you not learn foreign languages ?'—'*Leer jij geen vreemde talen ?*' '*Leer jij ni ander land zijn taal ?*' 'It seems that your horses will soon be tired.'—'*Het schijnt dat uw paarden gauw moeg zullen zijn ;*' '*Dit lijkt ver mij as of oom zijn paarde gauw moe zal wees.*' This use of *ver* before objects of verbs is peculiar. It is more particularly used with personal objects, and is somewhat parallel to the use of the preposition *à* in Spanish.

Taal is spelled on various systems. There is no authorized spelling. A certain number of books and periodicals and parts of some newspapers are printed in it, with about as many systems of spelling as there are publishers.

That Taal has suffered from the influence of English the following examples* will show : Dutch *kondukteur* becomes *guard ; briefkaart, postkaart ; ontbijt, breakfes ; kostgangers, boarders ; kleedkammertje, dresingroom ; gekookte eieren, poached eiers.* Two newspaper advertisements run thus : '*Nieuwste magazijnen met iedere mail*' ; '*Te koop volgens het "The Times" systeem van maandelijksche betalingen, versheidene Erven*' ('To be sold on the *Times* system of monthly payment, various plots of ground'). Such sentences as '*Dat is one of the pieces wat ik het gebreng*' ; or, '*De master z'n tie is in de drawer waar de missus z'n gloves inlê*,' are not unknown.

Passing now to the other side, we will consider some examples of the influence of Dutch and Taal upon English. The use of the glottal stop in English is common not only among Dutch Afrikanders, but also among English Afrikanders. It is, I think, at least partly responsible for the incorrect pronunciation of the English definite article before vowels (*ðə* instead of *ði*), in such sentences as, 'The old man stood at the open door and appeared to await the answer' (glottal stops before initial vowels).

Dutch commonly inserts an *ə* between the two components of many pairs of consonants : *Melk* is pronounced *melək ; halve, haləve ; schelm, skeləm*, and this produces in English *filəm, gymənasium*, etc. ; though such pronunciations are not unknown in England. The use of *I shall, I will, I'll*, is as often incorrect as correct. This may be due not only to actual ignorance as to the Scotch influence in the country. Owing to the similarity of sound between the English present *must* and the Dutch past *moest*, we get such uses as, *I must go to Johannesburg yesterday*, for, *I had to go.*

The following are common Taalisms : '*Have you been to town already ?*' ('*Is je al na de dorp toe geweest ?*') '*What is his name again ?*' ('*Wat is z'n naam ook weer ?*') '*I want to buy me a hat. May Jan come with ? I didn't have any money, so I must come back*' (='I had no money, so I had to come back'). '*Do you know where is Thomas ? He threw me with a stone.*'

As a sample of Taal-English from a Boer, this is not bad : '*Yes, Missus M. was come, and was find him. I was been by him yesterday, and I say him, "Sack the Kafirs ; she no good."*' The '*she*' is probably due to a confusion between *zij* (she) and *zij* (they). (*Cf.* German *sie.*) Mixed English and Taal is not at all uncommon : '*Now, boys, when you're klaar, come to the winkel, and the baas 'll betal you*' ('When you have finished, come to the shop, and I'll pay you'). Schoolboy conversation between Dutch and English boys, or even between two boys of the same nationality, may run somewhat thus : '*Say, jong, kom spel. Ne, ek is nog ni klaar ni with my essay.*' '*Oh, leave that.*' '*Ikona, eh ga voor m'n exam op, and I got a skrik that I shouldn't pass. Last time eg het alleen en paar marks gekry.*'

* The examples in this paragraph (except the two advertisements) are borrowed from 'How to Speak Dutch,' by Professor Logeman and J. F. van Oordt, B.A. Dusseau and Co., Amsterdam.

Or you may hear a conversation such as this between a mistress and her Kafir. Here we have English, Taal, and native languages mixed: '*Now, Sixpence, wash this floor; make skoon* (clean); *plenty manzi* (water), *plenty soap.*' '*Oh, missus, my head banja zeer* (very sore); *want moti* (medicine).' '*Ikona!* (Oh no!) *Sixpence no sick. Amba* (Go) *quick; loop af de emmer* (run for the bucket).' '*No, missus; ai muhle* (no good). *Sixpence pelili* (finished—*i.e.*, done up).'

The result of such linguistic conditions is a sort of Anglo-Taalo-Nativo multilingual illiteracy, with the concomitant fatal conviction in the illiterate mind that the speaker knows several languages. In addition to this, as the Afrikander lives very largely out of doors, he is not much of a reader. His vocabulary remains small and his power of expression limited. I do not wish to convey the idea that the whole country suffers to the extent illustrated by these examples, but it is not an exaggerated picture of a large proportion of the boys who passed under me at the Pretoria High School.

The conditions are not favourable to good English. Just about a year ago a lady in Pretoria told me she had taken her children away from one of the Government schools. 'When they went there,' she said, 'they could speak English; now they cannot.' The fluency of an English-bred boy is amazing compared with that of an Afrikander boy.

At the present time the pupils in the Government schools are becoming more anglicized, and there is a tendency for English to take the place of the Taal on the playground, especially in reference to games. The Dutch that is taught in the schools has about as much influence on their English as the French or German learnt in English schools.

Though it may seem strange, the school Dutch is almost as much a foreign language to Afrikander pupils, even to the Dutch ones, as French or German to us, with the added difficulty caused by the similarity between Dutch and Taal. Of some twenty-five pupils in my school who had their Bible lessons in Dutch, two could write examination answers in a fairly correct form. I could quote instances of Dutch boys of fourteen or fifteen unable to follow properly the church services they attend, children of Dutch families in which English is the home language.

Thus, while there are many of the more cultivated Dutch who speak English in their homes, the Bond, Het Volk, and the Predikants use their influence to maintain Dutch as a distinctive badge of nationality. A child that adopts an alien tongue may acquire alien sympathies. The influence of these bodies is enormous. Parents usually obey when the Predikant bids them take their children from an English school to put them at a Dutch one. Teaching appointments can be made and resignations forced by the influence of the Bond. Het Volk directs the Boer politics of the Transvaal. Het Volk rejected the Lyttleton Constitution, and has so far accepted no educational compromise, doubtless with the intention of waiting for the more favourable opportunity that they are shortly to have. The Transvaal Teachers' Association has already raised the question of the possibility of the places now held by British teachers being filled by Afrikanders. Mr. Smuts, in a recent pronouncement, has said that they do not want to turn Englishmen out of the Civil Service, but that they would prefer to fill any vacancies with Afrikanders. Vacancies may occur or they may be made.

How far any change in the staffing of the schools, or even in the party in power in the Government, is likely to affect the progress of either language, is, perhaps, difficult to predict. A generation of English schools would, naturally, make a vast difference in the amount of English spoken among the Dutch population. But in any case, in the long run English will, I think, become the predominant language. A prominent Dutch citizen of Pretoria told me about a year ago that he thought about

fifty years would nearly see the end of the Taal.

If in this brief and cursory paper I have succeeded in giving you some idea of the language question in South Africa, and at the same time some notions of the peculiarities of the Taal, then perhaps your time and mine will not have been spent amiss.

HAROLD W. ATKINSON.

LES PRÉCIEUSES.

IL nous est difficile de voir l'expression 'Les Précieuses' sans y ajouter le mot 'ridicules.' Cela est tout-à-fait naturel, car Molière, dans son chef-d'œuvre, nous a tant familiarisés avec cette expression qu'à présent les deux mots sont étroitement liés dans l'esprit.

Mais il n'est point certain que Molière ait visé les Précieuses de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet. On pourrait prétendre, avec raison, qu'il n'a voulu satiriser que celles de province, qui, en imitant les véritables précieuses, se sont rendues ridicules par leur exagération et leur affectation. La question est trop grande pour que nous puissions la discuter ici, mais il ne sera pas inutile de donner au lecteur quelque idée de la vie et des manières de la société qui fréquentait l'Hôtel de Rambouillet au commencement du dix-septième siècle.

Soit dit en passant, pourtant, ce sont sans doute des précieuses de province qui figurent dans la comédie de Molière. On remarque aussi que, dans la préface de son *Grand Dictionnaire des Prétieuses*, qui parut en 1660, l'auteur, Baudeau, Sieur de Somaize, en parlant d'une œuvre encore plus étendue qu'il a l'intention de produire, fait observer que 'les prétieuses véritables y auront part aussy bien que les ridicules.'

Ce qui est certain, c'est que, si les habitués de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet étaient un peu ridicules sous quelques rapports, leurs imitateurs sont devenus beaucoup plus ridicules encore, et que, malgré leur affectation, les vraies précieuses ont rendu de véritables services à la littérature.

L'Hôtel de Rambouillet était situé dans la rue Saint-Thomas-du-Louvre, non loin du Palais-Royal. Il appartenait à Cathérine de Vivonne, qui épousa, l'an 1600, Charles d'Augennes, plus tard Marquis de Rambouillet. Cathérine avait demeuré en Italie avec son père, le Marquis de Pisani, qui était Ambassadeur de France à Rome, et l'éducation délicate qu'elle avait reçue lui fit prendre en aversion les façons grossières de la Cour de France. Il faut toujours se rappeler que la société polie, comme nous la comprenons aujourd'hui—l'association sur le pied d'égalité des deux sexes—n'exista en France que quelque temps après le commencement du XVII^e^ siècle. Les guerres civiles qui tourmentaient le pays vers la fin du règne de Henri III. et pendant la première partie de celui de Henri IV. ne favorisaient point les manières raffinées, et ne rendaient pas possible le loisir et la quiétude qui sont indispensables pour les rélations sociales.

C'est, du reste, à cette époque que l'idée de l'égalité des hommes et des femmes trouve sa première expression. Mlle de Gournay était, au commencement du XVII^e^ siècle, un des premiers représentants de cette doctrine qui nous est si familière aujourd'hui; et, un peu plus tard, dans une pièce de théâtre—*L'Académie des Femmes*—nous trouvons ces lignes:

'Pour notre unique employ, pour tout notre partage,
N'aurons-nous donc jamais que les soins du ménage?'

La Marquise de Rambouillet devint, donc, l'interprète de cette idée. 'Elle groupa autour d'elle les âmes honnêtes, charmées de retrouver, sous Henri IV., le culte du devoir, la délicatesse des sentiments, et l'exercice de l'esprit.' De 1608 à 1624 la société se forma: 'Elle fit pro-

fession solennelle de sagesse, de science, de vers, et de vertu.' Les réunions de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet devinrent bientôt célèbres. Malherbe, Ogier, Vaugelas, Balzac, Chapelain, Voiture, La Rochefoucauld, Georges de Scudéry, la fille de la Marquise—la belle Julie—Madeleine de Scudéry, Pierre Corneille, Scarron, Ménage, en étaient des habitués. Malherbe y finit sa carrière ; Corneille y lut ses œuvres ; Bossuet y prêcha pour la première fois sur un sujet d'improvisation ; La Méthode de Descartes y fut dès l'abord étudiée, admirée. Ces réunions avaient lieu dans la fameuse chambre bleue de Cathérine, où, selon la coutume de l'époque, elle recevait couchée, en grande toilette, sur son lit. C'était un grand salon du rez-de-chaussée, éclairé sur le jardin par des fenêtres. L'ameublement était de velours bleu. Tallemant des Réaux dit, en parlant de Mme de Rambouillet : 'C'est la première qui s'est avisée de faire peindre une chambre d'autre couleur que de rouge ou de tanné, et c'est ce qui a donné à sa grand' chambre le nom de *chambre bleue*.'

Le lit était placé dans une *alcôve*, et l'espace entre le lit et la muraille, de chaque côté, s'appelait la *ruelle*, et était estimée une place d'honneur réservée pour les amis intimes. Selon Tallemant des Réaux, Mme de Rambouillet ne pouvait supporter la chaleur du feu, qui 'lui échauffait étrangement le sang, et lui causait des faiblesses. . . . La nécessité lui fit emprunter des Espagnols l'invention des *alcôves*, qui sont aujourd'hui si fort en vogue à Paris. La compagnie se va chauffer dans l'antichambre. Quand il gèle, elle se tient sur son lit, les jambes dans un sac de peau d'ours.' L'alcôve et la ruelle sont devenues de véritables institutions. Dans le *Grand Cyrus*, Mlle de Scudéry dit : 'Pour devenir amoureux de Philonide, il suffirait de passer une après-dînée à sa ruelle, quand même on y serait sans la voir, et en un de ces jours d'été où les dames font une nuit artificielle dans leurs chambres pour éviter la grande chaleur.'

Les habitués de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet se donnaient habituellement des pseudonymes tirés très souvent de l'histoire ancienne et des romans. Ainsi, en parlant de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet, Mlle de Scudéry l'appelle le *palais Cléonyme*, et fait mention de la chambre bleue d'*Arthénice*—anagramme de Cathérine. Julie d'Augennes, fille de Mme de Rambouillet, devient Ménalide ; Montausier, Ménalidés ; Voiture, Valère ; Balsac, Bélisandre ; et Mlle de Scudéry, Sapho.

Dans ces réunions on chantait ; on faisait de la conversation sur les affaires de l'époque, des discussions sur les sujets littéraires ; on lisait les lettres des absents ; on recherchait l'expression polie, le raffinement de la pensée ; on critiquait les nouvelles œuvres.

Aujourd'hui que l'on parle beaucoup de la réforme de l'ortographe anglaise, il est très intérressant de noter que, parmi les précieuses de provinces, il y en avait trois qui étaient de vrais précurseurs du Président Roosevelt et de Bernard Shaw. L'Abbé de Pure nous fournit la description suivante de leurs efforts : 'Enfin, s'estant trouvées ensemble avec Claristene (M. le Clerc), elles se mirent à dire qu'il falait faire une nouvelle ortographe, afin que les femmes peussent écrire aussi asseurement et aussi correctement que les hommes. Roxalie (Mlle le Roy), qui fut celle qui trouva cette invention, avait à peine achevé de la proposer que Silenie (Mlle Saint-Maurice) s'écria que la chose estait faisable. Didamie (Mlle de la Durandière) adjoûta que cela estoit mesure facile, et que, pour peu que Claristene leur voulut aider, elles en viendroient bien-tost à bout. Il estoit trop civil pour ne pas repondre à leur priere en galand homme ; ainsi la question ne fut plus que de voir comment on se prendroit à l'execution d'une si belle entreprise. Roxalie dit qu'il falait faire en sorte que l'on pût écrire de mesure que l'on parlait, et, pour executer ce dessein, Didamie prit un livre, Claristene prit une plume, et Roxalie et Silenie se preparerent à decider ce qu'il falait adjoûter ou diminuer dans les mots pour en rendre l'usage plus facile et l'orto-

graphe plus commode. Toutes ces choses faites, voicy à peu près ce qui fut decidé entre ces quatre personnes: que l'on diminueroit tous les mots, et que l'on en osteroit toutes les lettres superflues.' Somaize a fait une liste de ces changements. Nous y trouvons, par exemple, le rétranchement de l'*s* dans *tête, méchant, éclat;* de l'*h* dans *auteur;* du *p* dans *noces*, etc. L'orthographe française d'aujourd'hui se ressent encore de l'influence de Roxalie, de Didamie, et de Silenie.

Les divertissements des précieuses n'étaient pas toujours d'un caractère si sérieux. *Tallemant des Réaux* écrit: 'Mme de Rambouillet est encore présentement d'humeur à se divertir de tout. Un de ses plus grands plaisirs étoit de surprendre les gens. Une fois elle fit une galanterie à M. de Lizieux, à laquelle il ne s'attendait pas. Il l'alla voir à Rambouillet. Il y a au pied du château une fort grande prairie, au milieu de laquelle, par une bizarrerie de la nature, se trouve comme un cercle de grosses roches, entre lesquelles s'élèvent de grands arbres, qui font un ombrage très agréable. C'est le lieu où Rabelais se divertissait, à ce qu'on dit dans le pays; car le cardinal du Bellay, à qui il était, et Messieurs de Rambouillet, comme proches parents, allaient fort souvent passer le temps à cette maison; et encore aujourd'hui on appelle une certaine roche creuse et enfumée la *Marmite de Rabelais*. La marquise proposa donc à M. de Lizieux d'aller se promener dans la prairie. Quand il fut assez près de ces roches pour entrevoir à travers les feuilles des arbres, il aperçut en divers endroits je ne sais quoi de brillant. Étant plus proche, il lui sembla qu'il discernoit des femmes, et qu'elles étoient vêtues en nymphes. La marquise au commencement ne faisait pas semblant de rien voir de ce qu'il voyait. Enfin, étant parvenus jusqu'aux roches, ils trouvèrent mademoiselle de Rambouillet et toutes les demoiselles de la maison vêtues effectivement en nymphes, qui, assises sur ces roches, faisoient le plus agréable spectacle du monde. Le bonhomme en fut si charmé, que depuis il ne voyait jamais la marquise sans lui parler des roches de Rambouillet.' Le même auteur dit ailleurs: 'L'Hôtel de Rambouillet était, pour ainsi dire, le théâtre de tous les divertissements, et c'étoit le rendez-vous de ce qu'il y avait de plus galant à la cour et de plus poli parmi les beaux-esprits du siècle.'

L'affectation guindée qui déshonora plus tard le jeune précieux et la jeune précieuse ne vint qu'après la dispersion des membres de l'Hôtel de Rambouillet. Les comédies de l'Abbé de Pure (1656) et de Molière (1659) furent dirigées, en première instance, contre les précieuses des ruelles, devenues ridicules en imitant aveuglément ce qu'un auteur appelle 'les délicats procédés de la fierté, de la galanterie platonique, et de l'esprit finement trempé.' Les applaudissements donnés par Mme de Rambouillet et ses amis en 1659 aux *Précieuses Ridicules* de Molière nous montrent que l'illustre hôtel ne s'en sentait pas plus atteint que Molière n'avait eu l'intention de l'attaquer.

Parmi les sujets de conversation et de discussion chez les précieuses, l'amour jouait, naturellement, un rôle très important. *Saint Évremond* écrit: 'Après la lecture de mes vers, vous me demanderez avec raison ce que c'est qu'une *précieuse*, et je vais tâcher, autant qu'il m'est possible, de vous l'expliquer. On dit un jour à la reine de Suède, que les précieuses étoient les jansénistes de l'amour; et la définition ne lui déplut pas. L'amour est encore un Dieu pour les précieuses. Il n'excite pas de passion dans leurs âmes; il a formé une espèce de religion. Mais à parler moins mystérieusement, le corps des précieuses n'est autre chose que l'union d'un petit nombre de personnes, où quelques-unes, véritablement délicates, ont jeté les autres dans une affectation de délicatesse ridicule.'

La grâce délicate et légère de la société se révéla dans le célèbre hommage de Montausier à Julie, dont il rechercha la main pendant dix ans avant de la décider à l'épouser. La description suivante de son fameux cadeau—la Guirlande de Julie

—est tirée de *La Société Française au XVIIe Siècle* de Victor Cousin:

'La belle Julie eut beau dire qu'elle ne voulait pas se marier, l'amoureux et obstiné Montausier persévéra dans sa poursuite, et fit le siège de la dame, selon toutes les règles, avec une ardeur à la fois habile et passionnée ; d'une part, intéressant tout le monde à son amour, gagnant successivement toutes les amies de la noble marquise, Mlle Paulet, Mme de Sablé, Mme d'Aiguillon, faisant parler en sa faveur d'abord Richelieu, puis Mazarin, plus tard la Reine elle-même ; d'autre part, agissant sur le cœur de Julie par tous les beaux esprits de sa cour, se faisant bel esprit lui-même, composant des vers pour elle, en faisant composer par tous les poètes de sa connaissance, lui prodiguant les adorations publiques et privées, et lui adressant enfin cette fameuse *Guirlande de Julie;* la plus illustre galanterie, dit Tallemant, qui ait jamais été faite.

'Elle est de l'année 1641. C'était, ou plutôt c'est encore, un bel in-folio, relié en magnifique maroquin rouge et doublé de même, portant au dehors et au dedans le chiffre entrelacé de J. L. (Julie-Lucine).

'Le frontispice est une guirlande avec ce titre : *La Guirlande de Julie pour Mlle de Rambouillet, Julie Lucine d'Angennes.* Sur le premier feuillet est peint un zéphyr, tenant dans la main droite une rose et dans la gauche une guirlande de fleurs, au nombre de vingt-neuf, qu'il souffle légèrement sur la terre. Puis viennent de nombreux feuillets qui contiennent séparément les vingt-neuf fleurs peintes de la main du fameux peintre de fleurs, Robert, chacune accompagnée d'un madrigal admirablement écrit par Jarry. La plupart de ces madrigaux sont de Montausier lui-même, les autres des poètes de l'hôtel Rambouillet, parmi lesquels ne se trouve pas Corneille, à qui, mal à propos depuis deux siècles, on attribue des vers de Conrart.'

Voici le premier madrigal (par Montausier):

ZÉPHIRE À JULIE.

'Recevez, ô Nymphe adorable,
Dont les cœurs reçoivent les lois,
Cette couronne plus durable
Que celles que l'on met sur la tête des Rois.
Les fleurs dont ma main la compose
Font honte à ces fleurs d'or qu'on voit au firmament :
L'eau dont Permesse les arrose
Leur donne une fraîcheur qui dure incessamment ;
Et tous les jours, ma belle Flore,
Qui me chérit et que j'adore,
Me reproche avecque courroux
Que mes soupirs jamais pour elle
N'ont fait naître de fleur si belle
Que j'en ai fait naître pour vous.'

Après le mariage de Julie, qui eut lieu en 1645, l'hôtel de Rambouillet entra dans sa dernière période—période d'obscurité en comparaison avec les premières années. La marquise était triste et souffrante. Voiture mourut en 1648. Son dernier sonnet fut la cause d'une grande discussion, qui est devenue célèbre sous le titre de la guerre des Uranistes et des Jobelins. Les Jobelins préféraient un sonnet de Benserade, les Uranistes affirmaient la supériorité de celui de Voiture. La marquise mourut en 1665. Cependant, les réunions de l'hôtel de Rambouillet se continuaient dans les *Samedis* de Mlle de Scudéry. Ils étaient fréquentés par presque la même société, quoiqu'on y trouvât moins de noms nobles. Les gens de lettres y prédominaient. Les occupations des samedis ne différaient pas beaucoup de celles des autres réunions de l'époque, y compris l'hôtel de Rambouillet. La conversation y jouait un rôle important, ainsi que la composition des vers, les discussions sur des sujets littéraires, etc. Quand la soirée présentait un intérêt extraordinaire, Pellisson en faisait des notes en rédigeant un rapport dans lequel il citait les pièces qu'on avait lues ou composées. Un tel rapport, préservé parmi les papiers de Conrart, nous donne une description de 'la journée des madrigaux,' et nous fournit une idée parfaite du ton des Samedis :

'Le samedi donc alloit finir, et chacun commençoit à se retirer, plus ou moins

content, suivant qu'il avoit eu plus ou moins de part à l'entretien de Sapho (Mlle de Scudéry); quand la secrette influence des madrigaux qui commençoit à tomber avec le serein, conduisait la meilleure partie de l'assemblée chez la princesse Philoscène (Mme Arragonais) qu'une légère indisposition avait retenue ce jour-là dans son palais.' Là tout le monde s'assit auprès du feu. L'auteur continue: 'En cet estat leurs âmes estaient, sans doute, bien disposées pour recevoir les inspirations d'Apollon. . . . Toute la troupe s'en ressentit: tout le palais en fut remply, et, s'il est vrai ce qu'on en conte, la poësie passant l'antichambre, les sales, et les garde-robes mesme, descendit jusques aux offices; un escuyer, qui estait bel esprit, ou qui avoit volonté de l'estre, et qui avoit pris la nouvelle maladie de la cour, acheva un sonnet de bouts-rimez sans suër que médiocrement; et un grand laquais fit pour le moins six douzaines de vers burlesques. Mais nos héros et nos héroïnes ne s'attachèrent qu'aux madrigaux; jamais il n'en fut tant fait ni si promptement. A peine celuy-ci venait-il d'en prononcer un, que celuy-là en sentait un autre, qui luy fourmilloit dans la teste. Icy on récitait quatre vers, là on en escrivoit douze. Tout s'y faisoit gayement et sans grimace. Personne n'en rongeoit les ongles, et n'en perdoit le rire ni le parler. Ce n'estait que défis, que réponses, que répliques, qu'attaques, que ripostes. La plume passait de main en main, et la main ne pouvoit suffire à l'esprit. On fit des vers pour toutes les dames présentes.'

Dans le même cercle parurent *La Carte de Tendre* et *La Gazette de Tendre*, dont celle-là combla son auteur (Mlle de Scudéry) de ridicule. Les circonstances dans lesquelles elle fut composée sont ainsi décrites par elle:

'Eh! de grâce, amiable Clélie,' s'écria Herminius, 'dites-moi où j'en suis, je vous en conjure.' 'Vous en êtes encore à Nouvelle Amitié,' reprit-elle en riant; 'et vous ne serez de longtemps plus loin.' 'Du moins,' répliqua-t-il, en souriant aussi bien qu'elle, 'ne serrois-je pas marri de savoir combien il y a de Nouvelle Amitié à Tendre.' 'A mon avis,' reprit Aronce, 'peu de gens savent la carte de ce pays-là.' 'C'est, pourtant, un voyage que beaucoup de gens veulent faire,' répliqua Herminius, 'et qui mériteroit bien qu'on sût la route qui peut conduire à un aussi aimable lieu; et si la belle Clélie vouloit me faire la grâce de me l'enseigner, je lui en aurois une obligation éternelle.' 'Peut-être vous imaginez-vous,' reprit Clélie, 'qu'il n'y a qu'une petite promenade de Nouvelle Amitié à Tendre; c'est pourquoi, avant de vous y engager, je veux bien vous promettre de vous donner la carte de ce pays qu'Aronce croit qui n'en a point.'

La carte arriva ensuite, et étonna beaucoup les amis de Clélie. Elle représente un pays traversé de trois fleuves—Inclination, Reconnaissance, Estime—qui se jettent dans la mer dangereuse, de l'autre côté de laquelle se trouvent les terres inconnues. Sur chaque fleuve est située une ville qui s'appelle *Tendre*, et qui représente ainsi une des trois espèces d'affection—Tendre sur Inclination, Tendre sur Reconnaissance, Tendre sur Estime. A gauche de la carte se trouve la Mer d'Inimitié, à droite le Lac d'Indifférence. En partant de Nouvelle Amitié, en bas du tableau, le voyageur peut se rendre directément à *Tendre sur Inclination* en suivant le cours du fleuve de ce nom. En voyageant sur terre, il passe par les petites villes *Complaisance*, *Soumission*, *Petits Soins*, *Grands Services*, etc., pour arriver à *Tendre sur Reconnaissance*, ou par *Jolis Vers*, *Billet Galant*, *Billet-Doux*, *Sincérité*, *Grand Cœur*, etc., pour aller à *Tendre sur Estime*. A gauche la route, en traversant *Indiscrétion*, *Perfidie*, etc., mène à la *Mer d'Inimitié*; à droite elle gagne le *Lac d'Indifférence*, en passant par *Négligence*, *Inégalité*, *Tiédeur*, *Légèreté*, *Oubli*.

La Gazette de Tendre donnait des nouvelles de toutes les villes sur la carte, et marquait le progrès des voyageurs qui étaient partis de *Nouvelle Amitié*. J'en cite un exemple: 'De *Grand Esprit*. On est icy fort en peine d'un illustre étranger, appellé *Acante* (Pellisson), qui y passa

il y a déjà assez longtemps, car on n'a point de nouvelles de son arrivée à *Tendre*. On sçayt seulement qu'il fit quelque séjour à *Jolis Vers*, où il fut admirablement bien receu ; qu'il demeura quelque temps à *Billet-Galant*, et qu'il se trouva si bien à *Billet-Doux*, que pouvant aller coucher à *Sincérité*, il ayma mieux demeurer à cet aymable village. Les uns disent qu'il a, en ce lieu-là, quitté la route de *Tendre-sur-Estime*, et que tournant tout court, à gauche, il a pris la *Rivière d'Inclination ;* les autres, qu'il n'a fait que la traverser, et qu'il est allé à *Petit-Soins*, pour suivre de là le chemin de *Tendre-sur-Reconnaissance ;* et d'autres assurent, au contraire, qu'il a continué son premier chemin. Il y en a mesme qui disent qu'il est allé à *Tendre*. Mais, en fin, on n'en sçayt rien avec certitude ; ce qui afflige fort ceux qui le connoissent, car c'est un homme de grand mérite.'

Nous avons déjà vu que l'hôtel de Rambouillet avait ses imitateurs. Il y avait à Paris les hôtels d'Albret, de Longueville, de La Rochefoucauld, etc., et, à un échelon inférieur, les ruelles, les réduits, les alcôves de beaucoup de Précieuses moins connues. On ne sait pas au juste à quelle date elles commencèrent à se donner ce nom. Dans les provinces, surtout, le culte de la Préciosité avait une vogue extraordinaire, et atteignait des proportions très exagérées. Somaize nous fournit des exemples de la façon de parler de ces sortes de Précieuses. J'en cite quelques expressions typiques :

'J'aime beaucoup les gens d'esprit,' se traduisait en, 'J'ay un furieux tendre pour les gens d'esprit'; 'Un homme d'affaire' devient 'Un inquiet'; 'Vous me témoignez une grande affection,' 'Vous m'encendrez et m'encapucinez le cœur'; 'L'almanach' était 'Le mémoire de l'avenir'; 'Être belle' se disait 'Être dans son bel aymable'; 'Le balai,' 'L'instrument de la propreté'; 'Les choses que vous dites sont fort communes,' 'Les choses que vous dites sont du dernier bourgeois'; 'Laquais, mouchez la chandelle,' 'Inutile, ôtez le superflu de cet ardent'; 'La chaise empêche que l'on ne se crotte,' 'La chaise est un admirable retranchement contre les insultes de la boue et du mauvais temps'; 'Un verre d'eau,' 'Un bain intérieur'; 'Les fauteuils,' 'Les trônes de la ruelle'; 'Les femmes,' 'Les divinités visibles'; 'Asseyez-vous, s'il vous plaît,' 'Contentez, s'il vous plaît, l'envie que ce siège a de vous embrasser.'

Brunetière, dans ses *Nouvelles Études critiques sur l'Histoire de la Littérature française*, fait la comparaison suivante entre *l'esprit gaulois* et *l'esprit précieux :* 'Il y a de tout temps en France deux tendances qui se combattent pour ne réussir à se concilier que dans les très grands écrivains. Au-dessous d'eux, les uns sont *gaulois*, les autres *précieux*. L'esprit gaulois, c'est un esprit d'indiscipline et de raillerie, dont la pente naturelle, pour aller tout de suite aux extrêmes, est vers le cynisme et la grossièreté. Il s'étale impudemment dans certaines parties ignobles de Rabelais. Son plus grand crime est d'avoir inspiré *La Pucelle* de Voltaire. L'esprit précieux, c'est un esprit de mesure et de politesse qui dégénère trop vite en un esprit d'étroitesse et d'affectation. Son inoubliable ridicule, c'est de s'être attaqué, dans le temps de l'hôtel de Rambouillet, jusqu'aux syllabes mêmes des mots. Il se joue assez agréablement dans les madrigaux de Voiture et dans la prose de Fléchier. L'esprit précieux n'a consisté souvent que dans les raffinements tout extérieurs de la politesse mondaine ; l'esprit gaulois s'est plus d'une fois réduit à n'être que le manque d'éducation. Le véritable esprit français, tel que nos vraiment grands écrivains l'ont su représenter, s'est efforcé d'accommoder ensemble les justes libertés de l'esprit gaulois et les justes scrupules de l'esprit précieux.'

S. A. Richards.

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

THE PLACE OF TRANSLATION.

At the Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association, held recently at Durham, Mr. A. G. Latham, of Armstrong College, Newcastle, read an interesting and stimulating paper on the question, *Shall we abandon translation?* The subject and Mr. Latham's contribution to it were eminently calculated to provoke discussion, but the time was lacking. Fortunately so from the point of view of the editor of the Discussion Column, for it provides him with what he wants—a question that should galvanize into energy even the person who fondly imagines that he is 'too busy' to put pen to paper and write on a matter about which it is his duty to have at least a clear working hypothesis. Judging from communications already to hand, I have good reason to believe that this discussion is going to arouse very keen interest. And if we do not end by solving the problem, we shall at least realize more clearly why and how far we do not agree, and whether the possibility of further agreement depends upon something that experience can determine, or whether it is conditioned by a fundamental difference in aims.

The question before us, then, is this: *What is the place of translation in modern (foreign) language instruction?*

I propose to exercise in the discussion the office of chairman, and shall reserve the right to the last word. Needless to say, I shall invite Mr. Latham to reply to his opponents.

Members are particularly urged not to wait to be asked for a contribution. All contributions are welcome. The more the better, provided they are strictly to the point. They should be sent to me before the 10th of each month, and will be inserted in the order of their arrival.

F. B. Kirkman.

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I.

Mr. E. L. Milner Barry
(*Mill Hill School*).

I am so heartily in sympathy with what Mr. Latham has written on this subject that I find it difficult to put down anything which will throw fresh light on the question.

To me it appears that translation is one of the most valuable mental gymnastics which we possess, and that if we are to relinquish it at the bidding of the extreme reformers we shall deprive ourselves of one of the readiest instruments for arousing in our pupils what we may term *Sprachgefühl*. I am painfully aware that examiners frequently meet with disastrous results in translation, but mathematicians have not yet abandoned quadratics because a percentage of their pupils fail to solve them. Why, then, should we give up translation root and branch because this method of instruction may not be equally applicable to all?

Speaking from experience, my own view would be—when such a method is prac-

ticable—to utilize the reform movement for the first two or three years' instruction in a modern language, allowing the teacher free scope in the use of the mother-tongue, and in subsequent stages to let translation form part of the regular instruction.

I am quite sure that a translation-lesson, whether from an ancient or modern language, may be made of the highest possible value, whether we look upon the language-lesson itself as the object of our aim, or whether, looking beyond the immediate scope of the lesson, we see in all teaching a laudable ambition to *educate* our pupils, and I do not think the day will ever come in this country when translation will fall out of the time-table in modern language teaching.

In the course of preparing boys for the Higher Certificate of the Oxford and Cambridge Joint Board, I have from time to time adopted the plan of simply reading the foreign text, without translation. This has been possible only in the case of the French prose subjects, such as Erckmann-Chatrian's *Waterloo* or *Madame Thérèse*, where the subject-matter is of such an elementary nature as hardly to justify its being set for such an examination. I do not think that such a course could be safely pursued (from the examination point of view) with the more difficult works usually set, such as Racine's *Les Plaideurs* or Hugo's *Hernani*, and I have never tried the experiment in German, for I believe in the case of, say, Schiller's *Abfall der Niederlande* or Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm* that the subject-matter presents too many difficulties. I hope that teachers who have prepared candidates for this or similar examinations by reading the foreign texts without translation will tell us what their experience has been.

Speaking of examinations naturally opens up a wider question which I can barely hint at. It seems to me that for the present, at any rate, examinations will be ever with us. If this is so, it follows that we cannot conveniently dispense with translation. It is not practicable to do so. But, even assuming that the examination question should not be allowed to weigh, I would still urge the extreme reformers to pause ere they brand as *anathema* a part of instruction which reformers of another age—Ascham, to wit—found so valuable.

II.

Mr. T. R. N. Crofts

(Merchant Taylors' School).

The case for translation has been so ably stated by Mr. Latham in last month's Modern Language Teaching, that little remains to be said by one who is in almost entire sympathy with his views as there expressed.

When, a year ago, I made a few halting remarks at the annual meeting on this subject, so strong was the reform spirit among those present, that I was regarded as an interesting but effete relic of a prehistoric age. Accordingly, it is particularly gratifying to me to find the views which I then endeavoured to express so lucidly and convincingly put forward by another. Unless I am greatly mistaken, there are many modern language teachers throughout the country who share my gratification.

I should like to make it quite clear that what I have to say is based upon a fairly long experience of teaching according to both methods—*i.e.*, the one involving and the other excluding translation. From that experience I have found that the best results are obtainable from a blend of the two methods. In short, while holding that translation is essential, I would not abandon conversation, but use it as a subsidiary means to the end.

Much has been said of the great progress made in modern language teaching during the past decade, and the reformers have naturally attributed it directly to their method. But has not much of the improvement been due to the fact that during recent years most head-masters have ceased to entrust the teaching of

French or German to Classical form-masters or foreigners, and have taken care to choose teachers who have had special training in these subjects? There has been, in fact, a general revival of the two languages. That this has been contemporary with and partly due to the interest aroused by the reform method I do not deny, but that the latter has been the direct and sole cause of the awakening I entirely fail to see. Moreover, it is very doubtful whether the improvement is being maintained; in cases where translation has been abandoned I fear that time and accuracy have both been sacrificed to a certain superficial fluency in framing commonplace conversation. The reformers have in their zeal overstepped the mark.

It used to be alleged that many teachers preferred the old or translation system, because they were hampered themselves by a faulty accent or imperfect knowledge of the conversational language; but surely this charge cannot now be seriously brought against the bulk of French and German teachers—at all events, in schools where modern languages are a serious part of the curriculum.

Mr. Latham has very clearly pointed out that the great use of translation is its educative value, and that to abandon it is to rashly cast aside a most valuable asset. If it were possible for a child to live continually amid foreign surroundings, then, of course, the most reasonable method would be to let it talk the foreign language and nothing else, but where it is possible to have at the most one short lesson daily in the foreign tongue, much valuable time is lost in endeavouring to envelop the pupil with a foreign atmosphere, which will cease to exist the moment a particular lesson is over.

Suppose that a class of pupils, ten or eleven years of age, are learning French for their first or second term. It is comparatively easy to teach all of them the names of objects by means of pictures, without using the mother-tongue, but immediately an attempt is made to teach the formation of simple sentences, only the very best in the class will be able to do so at all logically and grammatically, except by comparing the foreign with the mother tongue. I have repeatedly found that sentences containing such words as *beaucoup*, *il y a*, *encore*, or illustrating the difference between *ont* and *sont*, are only partially understood by the majority such a class. I also found that an attempt without translating to drive home the meaning by a succession of sentences containing such expressions only serves to confuse still more the duller portion of the class. Am I, then, justified in refraining from translation when a simple explanation in the mother tongue would remove all doubt?

I think that we are far too apt to forget the object which we have in view in teaching modern languages. If it be our first aim (and in theory presumably we all agree on this point) to teach them as a means of culture, and not merely for utilitarian ends, surely we should endeavour to lead the young up to the point where they can obtain as broad a view as possible of French or German life, literature, and manners, and arouse an interest in the work which will lead them after leaving school to read French literature with pleasure and profit. Only a small minority will ever pay anything but a fleeting visit to foreign shores, and even when they are abroad, the little stock of conversation gathered during their schooldays will be of very limited use, unless it has been largely supplemented elsewhere.

Now, if to attain this object we abandon translation, except for the explanation of a few isolated words, the progress in the language will be so slow that almost as soon as the cleverer pupils have begun to read real literature, and long before the less gifted have reached that stage, they will leave school and go into the world with a stunted impression of the language and woefully ignorant of all the delights of its literature.

Nor is it to be supposed that if anyone has been accustomed to dispense with translation, he will the more readily read a book in the foreign language on his own

account. Even if he has some knowledge of the general drift, he will miss all the finer shades of meaning, and will have no literary grip on the language.

I have repeatedly found that boys who have been learning by reform methods for two or three years, without the aid of translation, are entirely at sea when asked to translate quite an easy piece of narrative, which they have 'done' in class according to the conversational system. They regularly mistranslate such simple words as *journée* or *cloche*.

It is often urged that if boys translate they only remember the translation, and not the original. Under some circumstances this may be true, but if the teaching is thorough, and they do not cover the ground too quickly, they can learn much of the original by means of retranslation, and, of course, a few conversational questions. After all, our object surely is not that they should know merely a few pages of the original by heart, but that they should obtain a fair knowledge of the contents of several pages each term, in order that they may the more quickly be able to cope with real literature.

One of the most grievous defects which I have always found, even among the best of reform-method pupils who have not been trained to translate at an earlier stage, is that when they do more advanced work they have a poor idea of style, both in composition and also in their English translations. They may be able to write French or English which is fairly accurate grammatically, but their productions are bald and colourless to a degree, and devoid of all originality.

Surely the cause of this is not far to seek. By dint of constant drilling, they have learnt, parrot-wise, to express themselves intelligibly, but that is all: the literary side has escaped them.

To sum up, I would use translation, even from the start, in teaching a foreign language, but at the outset only sparingly, with a view to explanation, and not laying great stress on style, but merely demanding accuracy of rendering. As the pupil progressed, I would introduce more translation, gradually raising the standard of it, and by degrees insisting upon a good rendering, until after four or five years' training the pupil would not be allowed to translate anything in a bald or slovenly style. In the meantime I would suggest that the pupil should also be trained by reading and answering in French to acquire as good an accent and pronunciation as is practicable. This becomes far more easy if stress is laid upon it in the early stages and if the beginners are drilled phonetically.

When the pupil is far enough advanced to grasp fairly the meaning of literary French, I would suggest that he should read more in the original, in the place of translating, in order to get a better notion of rhythm and balance; but I would also test his powers of translating by repeated recourse to translation from and into the foreign tongue. And here I might add that in my opinion the greatest benefit of the translation-lesson (as distinct from the formal *Prose* or *Unseen*) may be obtained by making the pupils do it without previous preparation. This will teach them to be ready and resourceful, and they will learn far more than by poring over the original with a dictionary. If it is not beside the point, I would suggest that the dictionary (as distinct from the vocabulary, which is useful for the pupil when working or revising alone) should be sparingly used for the first few years. When the pupil has acquired some accuracy in translation, and sharpened his critical faculties, he will the more easily guard against the pitfalls of a dictionary. Moreover, at this stage he should use a dictionary which contains the explanations of words in the foreign language itself (as Larousse), or, if an English-French dictionary is required in composition, he should be taught to verify doubtful words by looking them out again in the French dictionary.

But I have already strayed too far, and I know that much of what I have said will not be acceptable to many. In support of it I can only plead that I have written with the sincerity of conviction,

FRENCH PLAYS AT CAMBRIDGE.

EVERY student or lover of French literature owes Mrs. J. G. Frazer a deep debt of gratitude for her most recent achievement, the realization of which has proved as successful as its conception was daring—the performance, before three enthusiastic houses, of two famous French comedies: Molière's *Le Médecin Malgré Lui* and Racine's *Les Plaideurs*.

True, this was not Mrs. Frazer's first experiment of the kind. The cause of French belles-lettres has always been dear to her. To say nothing of her brilliant course of lectures on Molière delivered in Cambridge two years ago, and accompanied by the performance, in costume, of illustrative scenes, she made her début as producer of French plays three years ago, when she gave, in the hall of the Perse Grammar School at Cambridge, four performances of *Les Femmes Savantes*, in which she sustained with signal success the important part of Philaminte. We may suppose that it is the success of this first venture which emboldened her to make a bid this year for a wider recognition. And the event has not belied her judgment.

No trouble was spared to make the production worthy of the geniuses it was to commemorate, and of the high standard Mrs. Frazer has set up in Cambridge. Both plays were faithfully studied, down to their minutest details. On the all-important point of 'la tradition,' Mrs. Frazer consulted the only infallible authorities: the prompt books and the actors of La Maison de Molière. She was fortunate enough to secure from the costumier of that theatre drawings for all the dresses, and to obtain the services of a former Premier Prix du Conservatoire, Monsieur P. Berthon, to coach her company and take the small but important part of Léandre in *Les Plaideurs*.

The result was what had been promised: a very fair reproduction of the performance as given on the Paris stage. The company was really excellent for an amateur one—of even merit throughout, and conscientious, though not pedantically so. As the *Times* puts it, 'The broad lines were also carefully thought out, the tempi were quick, the words delivered with verve and fluency. The whole thing went briskly, and was handled with exactness and sureness of touch.'

Each performance was preceded by the recital by Mrs. H. M. Gwatkin, wife of the distinguished Professor, and second only to Mrs. Frazer in her zeal for French and French literature, of a remarkably witty prologue composed for the occasion by one of the actors—Monsieur L. Chouville—in itself a perfect example of the resources of the French Alexandrine. Replete with literary allusion, it would provide ample material for a lecture on the two dramatists and their plays. We give the concluding lines:

'Mesdames et Messieurs, spectateurs bénévoles,
Mais qui n'apportez pas votre rire tout prêt
A sortir de l'écrin comme on sort un sifflet,
Que vos esprits loin du morne aujourd'hui s'envolent!

'Arrière les soucis que le diable emmêla!
Oubliez vos fracs bien anglais, Londres, Cambridge,
Le Times et le football, et le danse et le bridge;
Et que rougissent vos talons! Molière est là;

'Et Racine, son juge, et sa veine écolière
Qui, sur un grand rival dont la gloire se fane,
Lançait malignement les traits d'Aristophane
Parmi les rires nés de ton rire, ô Molière!

'Mais si vous nous quittiez tantôt, mal satisfaits,
N'ayant point reconnu les grands auteurs qu'on aime,
N'en dites rien!—songez que demain c'est Carême,
Qu'on ne mesure pas le mérite au succès,
Que la troupe est bien jeune, et que Musset lui-même
Perdit un soir son temps au Théâtre-Français.'

The casts, with the exception of M. P. Berthon, were drawn from local sources—French or semi-French residents, teachers or students of French. It was thus possible to create a really French atmosphere about the whole thing, and to give Cambridge a unique opportunity of hearing good French diction without stirring from home.

All the important parts were remarkably well filled. The masterly diction and acting, as well as the variety and verve of MM. von Glehn and Chouville, Mr. C. F. Markham's and Mr. Nevill-Perkins' excellent performances of rather thankless parts, M. Roth's real comic power, and M. Berton's professional ability, which helped everybody in *Les Plaideurs*—all these deserve mention. But a special meed of praise is due to the two French ladies, Mlle Clément and Mrs. Nevill-Perkins, whose personal charm and grace, combined with dramatic talent, made the scenes — all too few — in which they appeared stand out from the rest.

We have only one cause for regret, and that is that M. L. Wolff, French lector at Gonville and Caius College, was unable, owing to ill health, to undertake a part. The brilliant lecture he delivered on the plays left no doubt in our minds as to his dramatic talent, and the loss we incurred by his confinement to the prompter's box.

It is needless to dwell on the high literary value of these performances. From the educational standpoint they forcibly bring home the fact so well stated by the Vice-Chancellor in his presidential speech:

'These performances are a vivid demonstration of the progress which the study of living modern languages, as understood by a living modern people, is making. As evidence of the advance which the study has made in Cambridge, I may say that neither these performances nor M. Wolff's lecture could ever have been given twenty, or even fifteen, years ago. The reason is that it would have been impossible to get an audience together for them, because their value could not have been stated in terms of Tripos marks.'

Mrs. Frazer and her dramatic society deserve our warmest and most grateful congratulations for their enterprise. May their example be followed by others and repeated by themselves! No one who has not tried it realizes the tremendous help afforded by the stage towards the acquisition of a language. It is an instrument which should be far more widely and regularly used than has hitherto been the case, both at school and at the University. We may, at any rate, venture to hope that the Cambridge French plays will become, if not as important, at least as regular, an event as the Greek play. For that it will be as welcome there is now no room to doubt.

MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF KENT.

THE Kent Education Committee has recently published an exhaustive report on secondary and technical education in the county, from which we quote the following passages relating to languages in secondary schools:

'French is universally taught both in boys' and girls' schools, but German finds little favour. There appear to be only four schools where it is a regular branch of the curriculum, and two or three others where it is an optional subject. As regards Latin, there is a sharp distinction between the courses of study pursued by the two sexes. It is a regular part of the curriculum at all the boys' schools except four, and at two of these it can be learnt by those who desire it. The time devoted to it, indeed—generally not exceeding four hours a week—would be thought to be very inadequate by a classical master of the last generation. In the girls' class-

rooms it finds scanty place. It is taught at only one mixed school and two girls' schools, and is an optional subject at one or two others.

* * * *

'Greek is taught in three boys' schools —namely, Faversham Grammar School, Maidstone Grammar School, and Cranbrook—but at all there are possible alternatives. It does not form part of the regular plan of study at any of the girls' schools in the county. At the Rochester Grammar School for girls, however, a few of the senior pupils study the language.

* * * *

'The courses of study adopted by the secondary schools are now of the linguistic and literary type, rather than the scientific. Science is predominant only at —— and ——, and in both of these changes will probably shortly be made. Speaking generally, the English subjects, mathematics, and French may be said to form the backbone of the schemes of study in the schools of Kent. Such a curriculum is suitable to the needs of a county with no great manufacturing and industrial interests, so far, at least, as the populations of its towns are concerned.'

It is satisfactory to read that 'a considerable proportion of the modern language teachers in the county have now received some training abroad.' Twelve Modern Language Exhibitions, of the value of from £7 to £10, tenable at one of the centres established on the Continent for the study of modern languages, are given annually by the County Council, and it is stated that these have already done much to improve the language-teaching in some of the schools.

But it appears from the following passage that there is still room for improvement:

'The standard of modern language teaching in the county, generally speaking, is higher in the girls' than in the boys' schools. In most schools attempts, more or less successful, are now being made to apply the "direct method" to the teaching of French. Unfortunately, however, in some instances the teachers, accustomed to the old leisurely way of teaching French, are quite unable to use the new method with any success, and there can be no doubt that the "new method" in the hands of an incompetent teacher produces most lamentable results. Such a teacher would do far better to cling to the methods to which he is accustomed, instead of abandoning them for a system which he does not understand and is not qualified to use.'

The proposal of the French and Prussian Governments to send 'assistants' to English schools is alluded to, but it does not appear whether the experiment has been tried in any of the schools of the county.

One of the appendices to the report contains tables showing the time per week allotted to each subject in each form in the schools and pupil-teacher centres. In the three institutions of the latter class French is taught for only 3, 2¼, and 2 hours respectively. The school hours in the centres are, of course, short. In the girls' schools the hours given to French vary within very narrow limits, being almost always between 3½ and 4 hours. Lower forms sometimes get less, while in one dual school all the classes in both departments get 4½ hours a week. The working hours are here rather more than those usual in girls' schools. In the mixed and boys' schools the range is from 3 to 4½ hours, but less in one or two schools which cling to the classical curriculum. The same remark applies to one or two girls' endowed schools, where Latin or German is taught in addition to French.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE fifty-seventh meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, March 2, 1907.

Present: Messrs. Allpress, Milner-Barry, Payen-Payne, Rippmann, Savory, Storr, Twentyman, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

Mr. E. L. Milner-Barry took the chair.

Letters expressing regret for inability to attend were read from Miss Batchelor, Miss Morley, Miss Purdie, Dr. Edwards, and Messrs. Longsdon and Somerville.

A letter was read from Mr. H. G. Wyatt, Central Training College, Lahore, describing the steps he was taking to enlist new members in India, and enclosing a leaflet he had drawn up for circulation.

The Hon. Secretary was desired to express to Mr. Wyatt the Committee's appreciation of the work he was doing.

Thirteen new members were elected, as follows:

Mrs. Banks, 19, Arkwright Road, Hampstead, N.W.

W. Bell, Director of Public Instruction and Under-Secretary to the Government, Lahore, India.

G. S. Brett, Director of Public Instruction and Professor of Philosophy, Government College, Lahore.

Mrs. Brooks, Head Mistress, Myrdle Street Higher Elementary School, Stepney, E.

Miss M. E. Gregory, Thomlinson Girls' School, Wigton.

K. S. R. Hayter, Chigwell School.

Rev. A. H. Hildesley, Principal, Lawrence Military Asylum, Punjab, India.

Miss Hogg, Principal, Pupil-Teacher Centre, Kendal.

Rev. H. W. McKenzie, Head Master, Durham School.

C. W. Merryweather, Manchester Grammar School.

Dr. G. P. Thistlethwaite, Glasgow University.

Miss Tonkin, Newport Intermediate School, Monmouth.

W. T. Wright, Inspector of Schools, Delhi, India.

The third report of the Organization Sub-committee was presented. A recommendation that members of the General Committee who retire by rotation at the end of the year should not be eligible for re-election till after the lapse of a year was accepted, as was a proposal that the General Committee should meet at least three times a year.

On the recommendation of the *Modern Language Review* Sub-committee, it was resolved that the agreement with the Cambridge Press be continued for one year, and an appeal be made to members of the Association for additional guarantees.

It was decided that the Committee should meet, as heretofore, on the last Saturday of each month, the next meeting, however, to be on March 23, as March 30 was Easter Eve.

THE SCHOLARS' INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE.

IT is gratifying to record that this correspondence continually increases in extent. That there is no failure on the French side, the experience of Mr. E. Groves, of Wigam Grammar School, plainly shows. He wrote, as is the custom, to various French professors, and after pairing his own 80 boys, found that he had the names of 150 French boys unpaired; this list he duly sent on to the English centre. Unfortunately, there is not such an excess of French girls waiting, but the number of teachers interested increases, and this means the number of scholars also.

Accounts of the correspondence

and rules have been given from time to time in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, notably in June, 1905, and April, 1906. The chief points to be remembered are that to insure variety it is best, in the first instance, that the teacher should send a foreign reply postcard to as many schools as he or she has pupils, asking for one correspondent from each school. Letters should be exchanged regularly. It is a good plan to have them alternatively in French (or German) and English; originally the English letter was supposed to go out on the third of the month, and the foreign letter on the twenty-first.

Miss Lawrence, of the *Review of Reviews*, Mowbray House, Norfolk Street, Strand, will be glad to give further information, and to hear from teachers from time to time, so as to keep in touch with the work.

French people are apparently more anxious for an exchange of visits than we are. Miss Lawrence has already received a few inquiries from France for the August holidays. This exchange of visits often comes about naturally from exchange of correspondence, when place, time, and circumstances facilitate matters.

LIST OF FOREIGN TEACHERS WHO APPROVE OF THE EXCHANGE OF LETTERS.

FRENCH.

Professors in Boys' Schools.

M. Andreü, Lycée National, Amiens.

M. Anglès - Béranger, Collège de Treignac, Corrèze.

M. Auvray, Lycée de St. Brieuc, Côtes du Nord.

M. Bastide, Lycée Charlemagne, Rue St. Antoine, Paris.

M. Bazennerie, Collège du Coulommiers, Seine-et-Marne.

M. Beltette, Lycée et à l'École Primaire Supérieure de Tourcoing, Nord.

M. Berland, Collège d'Auxerre, Yonne.

M. Bié, Collège de Mazamet, Tarn.

M. Blancheton, 53, Avenue Victor Hugo, Tulle, Corrèze.

M. Bonafous, Petit Seminaire de Lavaur, Tarn.

M. Bonnet, Lycée de Rennes, Ille-et-Vilane.

M. Basile Bouttes, Lycée de Guéret, Creux.

M. Camerlynck, 27, Avenue du Bel-Air, Paris.

M. Caralp, Collège de Ajaccio, Corsica.

M. Chambonnaud, 84, Boulevard Richard-Lenoir, Paris.

M. Clausse, Collège d'Auxonne, Côte d'Or.

M. G. Commandeur, Collège de Montélimar, Drôme.

M. M. Commandeur, 31, Boulevard Jean d'Arc, Soissons, Aisne.

M. G. Copperie, Collège de Calais, Pas-de-Calais.

M. Coiscard, Collège de Dunkerque, Nord.

M. L. Darriulat, Lycée de Toulon.

M. Degré, Collège de Langres, Hte. Marne.

M. Devaux, Collège de Vire, Calvados.

M. Divry, Institut St. Louis, Perpignan, Pyrénées Orientales.

M. Drieu, Lycée de Gap, Hautes-Alpes.

M. Duplenne, Collège de Cholet, Maine-et-Loire.

M. Dupré, Lycée Montaigne, Rue Auguste-Comte, Paris.

M. Feignoux, Lycée de Caen, Calvados.

M. Feytel, École Normale, Bonneville, Hte. Savoie.

M. France, Collège de Beaune, Côte d'Or.

M. Gabriel, Collège de Luneville, Meurthe et Moselle.

M. Gandner, Collège d'Arnay-le-Duc, Côte d'Or.

M. Gascard, Lycée de Montpellier, Herault.

M. Gombaud, Collège de Melle, Deux-Sèvres.

M. Grept, Collège de Coulommiers, Seine et Marne.

M. Guillet, École Primaire Supérieure de Chantonnay, Vendee.

M. Helias, 29, Avenue St. George, Auxerre.

M. Janin, Collège de Villefranche-sur-Soane, Rhône.

M. Jubien, Lycée de Niort, Deux-Sèvres.

M. Koenig, Collège de Vitry-le-François, Marne.

M. Lagarde, Collège d'Elbœuf, Seine Inférieure.

M. H. Lagarde, Collège d'Auxerre, Yonne.

M. Launay École Normale d'Instituteurs, Douai, Nord.

M. Le Desert, Collège de Riom, Puy-de-Dôme.

M. Le Rouge, Collège de Morlaix, Morbihan.

M. Maffre, Lycée de Toulouse, Hte. Garonne.

M. Marchand, Collège de Luxeuil, Haute-Saone.

M. Martin, Lycée de Tournon, Ardèche.

M. Mieille, Lycée de Tarbes, Hte. Pyrénées.

M. Mouriès, École libre de La Trinité, Béziers, Herault.

M. Nida, Lycée de Troyes, Aube.

M. Obry, Lycée du Havre, Seine Inférieure.

M. Odru, Lycée de Puy, Hte. Loire.

M. O'Dempsey, 7, Rue Duguay Trouin, St. Brieuc, Côtes du Nord.

M. Peignier, Lycée de Bordeaux, Gironde.

M. Pradel, Lycée de Montluçon, Allier.

M. Quenouille, Collège de Grasse, Alpes Maritimes.

M. Reynaud, 46, Boulevard de la Croix Rouge, Lyon.

M. Roussel, Lycée de Vendôme, Loir-et-Cher.

M. Roy, Lycée de Châteaudun, Eure-et-Loire.

M. Sabardu, Collège de Draguinan, Var.

M. Salvan, Collège St. Jean d'Angely, Charente Inf.

M. Secheresse, Collège de Bergerac, Dordogne.

M. Thoumazoun, Petit Seminaire de Brive, Corrèze.

M. Touzain, Lycée d'Angoulême, Charente.

M. Turgot, École primaire sup. de Garçons, Carentan.

M. Valentin, Collège de Soissons, Aisne.

M. Vayron, Collège de Vannes, Morbihan.

M. Voillet, Collège Monge à Beaune, Côte d'Or.

M. Wirth, Lycée Fontanes, Niort, Deux Sèvres.

Teachers in Girls' Schools.

Mlle Abrey, Collège Fénelon, Lille, Nord.

Mlle Bellon, Lycée de Jeunes Filles, Montpellier, Herault.

M. Beltette, l'Institut Sévigné, Rue des Orphelines, Tourcoing, Nord.

Mlle Coblence, École Normale d'Institutrices, Mélun, Seine-et-Marne.

Mlle Cruvellie, Collège de Jeunes Filles, Béziers, Herault.

Mlle Cros, Lycée de Jeunes Filles, Orléans, Loiret.

Mlle Dubois, Institution de Jeunes Filles, 6, Rue du Sud, Dunkerque, Nord.

Mlle Dussot, Lycée de Lons-le-Saunier, Jura.

Mlle Dousset, Collège de Troyes, Aube.

Mlle Erhard, École Supérieure de Jeunes Filles, Tours.

Mlle François, 51, Rue de la Barre, Alençon.

Mlle Fayolle, École Supérieure, Saint Chamond, Loire.

Mlle Fischer, Collège de Jeunes Filles, Chalon-sur-Saone, Saone-et-Loire.

Mme Veuve Français, Collège de Jeune Filles, Constantine, Algeria, Africa.

Mlle Gilard, Lycée de Jeunes Filles, Marseilles.

Mlle Goisey, Collège de Jeunes Filles, La Fère, Ainse.

Mlle Guerin, 5, Rue de Lagny, Montreuil-sous-Bois, Seine.

Mme Hava, Collège de Jeunes Filles, Rochefort, Charente Inférieure.

Mme Mieille, Collège de Jeunes Filles, Tarbes, Hte. Pyrénées.

Mme Nerson-Coblence, École Normale d'Institutrices, Mélun, Seine-et-Marne.

Mlle Percherancier, Collège de Jeunes Filles de Chartres, Eure-et-Loire.

Mlle Rive, Lycée de Jeunes Filles, Montpellier, Herault.

Mlle Turgot, L'École Communale de Jeunes Filles de Carentan, Manche.

Mlle Valentin, Collège de Cours.

Mlle Vidal, Lycée de Jeunes Filles, Nice.

BELGIUM.

Mlle François, Rue de La Blanchisserie, Brussels.

Mme Vasseur, 16, Rue du Remorqueur, Brussels.

Mme Rachwall, 22, Rue Philippe-Champagne, Brussels.

GERMANY.

Teachers who like to hear direct.

Mr. W. E. Birkett, 12, Höhstrasse, Schweidnitz, Germany.

Mr. J. Bolgar, 32, Hansaring, Köln am Rhein.

Direktor Bowitz, Höhere Mädchenschule, Schweidnitz, Silesia.

Fräulein Eckardt, Städtische höhere Mädchenschule, Bochum, Westphalia.

Professor G. Höft, 19 Henriettenstrasse 21ii, Hamburg.

Dr. Jaeger, 91, Brahmsallée, Hamburg.

Fräulein H. Ludwich, Märkische Strasse 9, Bochum, Westphalia.

Professor Nader, Waehringer Strasse 61, Vienna 9/2.

Miss Webb, Helgoländer Ufer 6, Berlin, N.W. 52.

Professor Martin Hartmann, the organizer for Germany, prefers to keep to the former plan. Lists should therefore be sent to him to distribute. He requires the age of pupil, school standing, and profession of parent; also a 2½d. stamp with each name on the list. His address is, Fechnerstrasse 2, Gohlis-Leipzig. He writes that he can find students in various parts of Germany for many more English students than have ever made inquiry.

HOLLAND.

M. Grasé, 32, Alex Boerstraat, Amsterdam.

M. Fijn van Draats, Municipal Secondary School, Utrecht.

ITALY.

M. F. Chimenti, R. Istituto Tecnico, Bari.

HOLIDAY COURSES.

THERE is no decline in the demand for Holiday Courses, if we may judge from the convenient table which has again been issued by the Special Inquiries Office of the Board of Education. It contains particulars of five courses in Germany, one in Austria, four in Switzerland, one in Spain, and no less than sixteen in France. The table can be obtained on application to the Board of Education Library, St. Stephen's House, Cannon Row, Whitehall, London, S.W.

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We draw the attention of our readers to the courses of the Teachers' Guild, particulars of which are given below.

We have received the prospectus of the courses at the University of Dijon, which seem very attractive. They last from the beginning of July to the end of August, but students can be admitted at any time. The local committee undertakes to provide accommodation at a very low charge. The secretary is M. Lambert, 10, Rue Berbisey.

⁂

There are to be Holiday Courses at Versailles, in the Internats du Lycée de Jeunes Filles, from August 5 to 24, and from September 2 to 21. These are not included in the table mentioned above. Particulars may be obtained from Mme Kahn, at the Lycée.

⁂

Our foreign readers may be interested to know that there will be a Holiday Course for Foreigners at the University of London, from July 22 to August 16. This is the fourth year of these courses, and again several improvements have been made. The detailed prospectus is now ready, and can be obtained on application to the *Registrar of the Extension Board, University of London, South Kensington, London, S.W.*; the words 'Director of the Holiday Course' should be added in the left top corner of the envelope.

HOLIDAY COURSES OF THE TEACHERS' GUILD.

THERE can be no doubt that English teachers find Holiday Courses in Modern Languages of service to them in connection with their professional work. The present year is the eleventh in which the Guild has arranged Holiday Courses. It began with two in France, at Tours and at Caen; later it added a Spanish and a German Course. Tours has been one of its centres yearly from the first; the more northerly French Centres have varied. Caen, Lisieux, and Elbeuf have been tried, but for the last five years Honfleur has been the centre chosen. For students who can go so far and bear the moderate extra cost, Tours is obviously a most desirable place, the French of Touraine being the best in France. Honfleur, however, has more students, owing to its comparative proximity to England, on the coast, and to the bracing quality of its air, while the local accent is not, perhaps, of great account to the student who lives in a private family and is constantly in attendance at the classes of an educated *professeur*. The choice of Neuwied, on the Rhine, as the German Centre was partly determined on personal grounds. The Course there has the great advantage of the teaching of Professor Dr. A. Biese, Director of the Royal Gymnasium, a man of reputation for learning in his own country; but Neuwied is, further, very easily and inexpensively accessible from England. Avila was the first centre for the Spanish Course, which has been shifted to Santander. Considerations of cost and time had to prevail, and, as it is, the Course itself, with the double journey, occupies almost the whole of the autumn holiday of a teacher who is not allowed much more than a month.

Special points about the Teachers' Guild Courses have always been—(1) that they are arranged by a Committee in England, with the help of local Committees or individuals abroad; (2) that the students are all from English-speaking lands; and (3) that public school masters attend the Courses with the students throughout, as representatives of the English Committee. It has been found that these features are all of value. The English Committee is composed of eighteen members, representing the Guild, the Associations of Head-Masters, Head-Mistresses, Assistant-

Masters and Assistant-Mistresses, the National Union of Teachers, and the Association of Directors and Secretaries for Education. There are two co-opted members. Among the members of the Committee are Mr. S. de Ste. Croix, of Christ's Hospital (Chairman), and Mr. F. S. Marvin, H.M.I. (Vice-Chairman); Professor W. Rippmann, Mr. P. Shaw Jeffrey (Colchester), Mr. E. W. Hensman (Quorn), and Miss L. A. Lowe (Leeds). The composition of this Committee is a guarantee for an intelligent and broad-minded organization of Courses to meet requirements of those who attend them. The practical limitation to English-speaking students is also believed to be of advantage to them, as the foreign teachers have a definite set of special difficulties to meet, in connection with both idiom and pronunciation. Apart from their social and semi-social duties, which are many, the English representatives at the Courses being themselves teachers, are able throughout to act as mentors to the foreign teachers, conveying to them the views of the Committee on points of detail with their own views and those of the students, the object being to get the utmost possible benefit from the instruction afforded. This year the representatives appointed are—for Tours, Mr. Edward Buck, M.A., Christ's Hospital; for Honfleur, Mr. J. V. Saunders, M.A., Hymers College, Hull; for Neuwied, Mr. E. Sharwood Smith, M.A., Head-Master of Newbury Grammar School. It is not possible to send out a representative to Santander unless the number of students becomes greater than hitherto, but at or near to that city are two devoted helpers, Don Julian Fresnedo de la Calzada and Mr. S. Beirne, who will together discharge the duties of representative to the best of their ability.

The English Committee have decided on an important development this year which should greatly enhance the value of the Courses. They are going to increase materially the number of foreign leaders of conversation in the French Centres and at Neuwied, as under former conditions the conversations—a specially useful part of a Course—were not sufficiently frequent, and were apt to be carried on by one or two students in each circle, with the rest for audience. There will in future be conversation classes *daily*, and they will be kept as *small* as possible.

The Preliminary Circular giving detailed particulars of these Courses will be sent to anyone on application to the Teachers' Guild, 74, Gower Street, London, W.C.

HINTS TO STUDENTS AT HOLIDAY COURSES.

THE University of Besançon issues a booklet in connection with its *Cours de Français*, which may be obtained on application to M. Suffren, 128, Grande Rue, Besançon. We have received permission to reprint from it the following:

Conseils aux Étudiants étrangers pour apprendre le Français.

Nous recommandons aux Étudiants étrangers:

1. Avant tout, de suivre très régulièrement les cours qui sont faits pour eux, et qui ne sont ni moroses, ni ennuyeux, mais très gais au contraire et fort *gemütlich*, comme disait une jeune allemande.

2. De prendre sur un cahier *toutes les notes qu'ils pourront prendre*, de les conserver et de les relire de temps en temps; c'est le plus sûr moyen de faire des progrès. Nous avons pu constater souvent que ceux de nos hôtes qui parlaient le mieux le français, étaient aussi ceux qui prenaient le plus grand nombre de notes.

3. Ensuite, de lire les journaux français, surtout le *Temps* (20 cent. le numéro), et quantité d'autres journaux à 5 cent., de toutes les opinions.

4. De ne pas parler entre eux leur langue maternelle et de ne pas trop se fréquenter en dehors des cours; mais de parler français le plus possible et de fréquenter des Français, et des Françaises, naturellement.

5. D'aller au temple ou à l'église catholique, le dimanche, pour entendre les prêches et les sermons des pasteurs et des prêtres et étudier l'accent oratoire.

6. D'aller au théâtre, toutes les fois qu'ils pourront le faire.

7. De se promener sur le marché, pour écouter et tâcher de comprendre les marchandes, les revendeurs, les ouvriers, les paysans, et de s'exercer ainsi l'oreille.

8. De lire les enseignes des magasins et les affiches de toute nature placardées sur les murs, ce n'est pas du temps perdu.

9. De noter avec soin sur un carnet les expressions et les tournures qu'ils ne comprendraient pas bien, et d'en demander l'explication aux Professeurs, pendant ou après les cours.

10. De causer avec les enfants, fillettes ou garçons, s'il s'en trouve dans la famille où ils sont pensionnaires : c'est toujours très intéressant, très instructif et très profitable, car les enfants sont de merveilleux maîtres.

11. D'écrire souvent, en français, à ceux de leurs amis et connaissances qui sauraient aussi le français.

12. De lire à haute voix, chaque matin et chaque soir, de lire lentement surtout, d'ouvrir la bouche et de bien articuler les syllabes : il n'y a pas de meilleur exercice, quoiqu'il soit un peu fatigant.

13. Enfin, d'oublier les boissons de leur pays, même la bière de Munich, et de boire du vin, rouge ou blanc ; il rend gai, joyeux, éloquent même, comme le disait le bon Horace, il y a bientôt deux mille ans :

> 'Fecundi calices quem non fecere disertum.'

Ce conseil a pu paraître étrange tout d'abord aux Étrangers : mais ceux et même celles qui l'ont suivi n'ont pas eu, nous le savons, à s'en repentir. On n'apprend pas le français sans boire du vin de France, même au risque d'avoir un peu le *Kater*.

REVIEWS.

Le Petit Ravageot (tiré des 'Contes du Petit Château, par Jean Macé'). Adapted and edited by F. W. Wilson. Macmillan. 1906. Pp. 87 (29 text, 13 notes, 15 vocabulary, 7 questionnaire, 5 phrases for *viva voce* drill, 6 exercises on syntax and idioms, 5 passages for retranslation, 7 key to phrases). Price 1s.

The form master set to teach French and knowing none will be grateful to us for calling his attention to this ingenious little book. With its help his pupils will doubtless succeed in passing examinations —on paper. Whether he will inspire them with a love of French as a living language, or whether, after laboriously working through all the exercises, they will be any nearer using the French language as their own, is another matter. For the rest, the meagre 29 pages of text are excellently printed in large, clear type, albeit disfigured by numerous asterisks, designed to fix the lazy boy's attention on the notes—*e.g.* :

'Il y avait une fois* un petit garçon qui était si méchant que tout le monde* avait peur* de lui.'

Notes.—*Il y avait une fois*, 'once upon a time there was . . .'

tout le monde, lit. 'all the world' = everybody. Notice the gender of *monde* (Lat. *mundus*).

avait peur : in a certain number of phrases the verb is joined to the noun without using the article ; *cf.*—

P. 1, l. 12, *avoir honte*, 'to be ashamed.'

P. 4, l. 6, *prendre place*, 'to take a seat.'

P. 4, l. 18, *avoir tort*, 'to be wrong.'

P. 23, l. 4, *prendre congé*, 'to take leave.'

There is even a note on *sa pauvre maman !* In short, in most conscientious fashion publisher and editor seem to have conspired to prevent any possibility of the child's thinking for himself, or of using his tongue rather than his eyes. The subject-matter is admirably designed to interest a child of ten or eleven.

Abdallah. E. Laboulaye. Adapted by J. A. Wilson.

La Chanson de Roland. Adapted by H. Rieu.

L'Histoire d'une Tulipe. A. Dumas. Adapted by T. R. N. Crofts.

Mémoires de Cadichon. Founded on 'Mémoires d'un Âne.' Adapted by J. F. Rhoades. (Methuen's Simplified French Texts. Price 1s. each.)

These little volumes form a welcome addition to the stock of French readers for junior pupils. Well put together, on good paper, and excellently printed (though *Abdallah* has some misprints), these interesting stories should not fail to secure readers. The general preface says that they are intended as simple translation books for young pupils who have been learning a year or eighteen months. It seems a pity to *translate* such simple little stories, and the presence of the vocabulary certainly detracts from the charm of the books as a permanent possession for the little student.

La Jeunesse de Pierrot. A. Dumas. Edited by L. Barbé. (Blackie's Modern Language Series.) 1906. Pp. 150 (80 text, 26 notes, 34 vocabulary). Price 1s. 6d.

We cannot recommend this edition. The story is, of course, fascinating, though it is open to question whether Dumas' vocabulary is the best available for young children. But what purpose is served by loading the notes with every rule of grammar and every idiom that can possibly be dragged in? What advantage is to be gained from a note like this: '*Lieu: Lieu* and *endroit* both mean "place," but the latter is more relative and definite. *Place* is "place," considered as occupied by a person or thing. It also means "room" and "square."' At forty we give it up. We wonder what twelve will make of it. In his preface the editor insists on the value of literal rendering of idioms. This we should have thought the last thing scientific teaching would allow.

The presence or absence of an exhaustive questionnaire makes all the difference to the value of an elementary book like this for class use. True, notes and vocabulary cost but little labour, and a good questionnaire much; but the practised teacher would willingly barter the last sixty pages of this book for one.

Le Cid. Edited with Introduction and Notes by H. W. Eve. Cambridge University Press. 1906. Pp. xvi, 143. Price 2s.

A worthy edition of the classic. The introduction—which includes, besides a life and appreciation of Corneille, notes on *The Cid* in history and legend, the plot, the characters, and the unities—is scholarly work. The notes (40 pages) would be the better for retrenchment. About nine-tenths in page after page we have marked as otiose. For whose benefit are the following, *e.g.*, intended: '*D'un côté*, "to one side," not "from." The use of *de* in such expressions where we should say "on" or "to" is a familiar idiom.' 'It is important to notice that *a ravi* and *ont donné*, etc., are to be rendered "delighted," "gave," and not as English perfects "have delighted." In French the past indefinite is the tense of conversation'? One would hardly read *Le Cid* below the Upper V., and if by that time a boy does not possess the above information, it is surely waste of time for him to pursue the study of French any further. Instances by the score might be adduced. We could wish that Pitt Press editors, able and learned though they be, would first put themselves in the position of the practical teacher, and try to realize what are and what are not likely to be the difficulties of the age to which the book appeals. The saving in printer's ink would be the least valuable of the economies that would ensue.

Mr. Eve apparently writes for schools where the old bad practice prevails of translating a book written in a living tongue from cover to cover with eyes glued to the page (and the dictionary), and with never a chance of reading aloud, or hearing read, the actual French words. Else what is the point of the following note: '*Aïeux* forms two syllables, *a-ieux*, *i* being consonantal, as *y* in *yeux*'? This goes without saying from the scansion, and surely from the master's, if not the boy's, pronunciation of the line. Should, however, the text not be read aloud, of

what import whether *aïeux* is of one syllable or fifty?

Pélerins de la Tamise (The Wanderings of Pierre and Maurice in England). With Notes and Exercises. CHRISTINA BOYD. Dent. 1906. P. 120. Price 1s. 6d.

This little volume supplies a much-felt need in classes where the reader forms the basis of all the French instruction. The idea and, in general, the execution are excellent.

The notes and exercises are throughout in French. In the exercises lucidity has sometimes been sacrificed to brevity. It is not easy to understand the principle on which the notes have been framed. The grammatical explanations are full and adequate; but of difficult words many are left unexplained—*e.g.*, words occurring in connection with Notes 58, 62, 72, 73, etc. Would not a French vocabulary be of assistance here?

In any case, attention is drawn to the phrase rather than the word, and for this, among many other reasons, the book is distinctly a step in the right direction.

Der Backfischkasten. By FEDOR VON ZOBELTITZ. Edited by GUSTAV HEIN. London: Edward Arnold, 8vo., pp. iv+139; 2s.

The editor has made a selection from the novel, and given only the chapters which deal with the incidents at the boarding-school. The German is racy, probably too much so for many teachers. If German slang is to be learnt and used in English class-rooms, no more suitable book could be found than this selection of lively scenes. The notes are to the point, and the vocabulary seems complete.

Dent's First Spanish Book. By FRANK R. ROBERT. Dent. Price 2s. net.

The greater part of this book consists of a series of lessons of the type familiar to every teacher who uses Dent's French or German books. The four-season system, however, has been deserted, and the first 111 pages form a general introduction to Spanish grammar and vocabulary, while incidentally conveying much information upon Spanish life and customs. Then follow a story with notes in Spanish, a number of fables for repetition, and a commercial section containing useful phrases and model letters. The execution is thorough, and is obviously the work of a skilled teacher; the book, however, seems to attempt too much in too small a space, and a greater burden of responsibility is thrown upon the teacher than in the French and German books in this series. However, the teacher is everything and the book nothing when reform methods are in question, and the defect is thus rather apparent than real. The pictures are entirely Spanish in idea—there seems to be one missing from Lesson No. 6 in the copy of the book which has reached us; the inscription on the wall above the *zapatero* on p. 66 is inconsistent with the text on p. 67, and the discrepancy, unfortunately, involves a grammatical point of some importance. But our researches have failed to discover any other misprint in the book, which will form a useful working basis for learners, provided that their teacher is thoroughly competent, and that they do *not* follow the *refranes* somewhat inappositely quoted on p. 40: 'Oir, ver y callar. En boca cerrada no entra mosca.'

FROM HERE AND THERE.

In our December issue we printed certain resolutions on the order in which foreign languages should be learnt, which were passed at a Conference of representatives of the Modern Language Association, the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters, and the Classical Association. We are desired by the Council of the Classical Association to state that the resolutions of the Joint Conference were in no way binding upon that Association, and that the attitude of their delegates must be regarded as merely an expression of individual opinion. We regret that we did not make this clear when we inserted the resolutions.

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University of London.—Miss Kate M. Rogers B.A., has been appointed to the Gilchrist Studentship in Modern Languages.

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The Report of the Curators of the Taylor Institution at Oxford for 1906 is very encouraging. The number of entries for lectures and classes has risen from 87 in 1900 to 676 in 1906, of whom 500 were men and 176 women. The fees paid have increased in the same period from £77 to £560. The increase in the demand for Modern Language Teaching is attributed partly to the requirements of the Pass Examinations, and partly to the number of candidates who offer modern languages in the Higher Civil Service Examinations and for the Examinations under the Delegacy for Military Instruction. There is also an increased demand for instruction of an advanced character, stimulated largely by the Honour Schools of English Language and Literature and Modern Languages and Literature. Complete courses of instruction are now provided in French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, and Scandinavian. Three additional lecturers were appointed in 1906.

On January 31 last a meeting was held in Paris of the friends and former pupils of the late M. Alexandre Beljame, for the purpose of raising funds to perpetuate his memory by the erection of a medallion in the Sorbonne. During the many years he held the Professorship of English in Paris he trained the majority of those who are to-day teaching our language in France and he probably did more to popularize the study of English than any other man. Among those on the committee appointed to forward this proposal are MM. Liard, Croiset, Hovelaque, Mézières, Garnier, Jamin, and Miss Williams. The secretaries, to whom all subscriptions should be sent, are M. Clermont, of the Lycée Janson de Sailly, and Mlle Scott, of the Lycée Molière.

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We have pleasure in announcing that our next number will contain a valuable article on 'The Teaching of English in German Secondary Schools,' by Direktor Dörr; and we have been promised several contributions to the Discussion Column, which will represent the other side of the controversy. The discussion bids fair to be quite as lively as that in our first volume.

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We have been asked to insert the following, and trust that one of our readers will avail himself of this excellent opportunity of improving his French: "For a little English conversation, a French gentleman, important business man, offers to Englishman French home for two, four, or six months, board and lodging free of cost, in the most important manufacturing district of France. Daily intercourse with manufacturers, teachers, etc. The address will be given by M. Freschard, Professor in Longwy, France.

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, March, 1907: English Poetry for Children from Six to Ten (the Principal of St. Mary's Hall, Liverpool); Idola Pulpitorum—French (C. Brereton); A Master of Method: A Comedy in Two Acts.

SCHOOL WORLD, March, 1907: How to Read an Author in Class (J. Oliphant); The Best Curricula for English Schools (G. McCroben, Rev. W. H. Keeling, R. Lishman).

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, March, 1907: Poetry as an Atmosphere: a Discipline and a Study (P. A. Barnett).

The A.M.A., February, 1907: The Place of Modern Languages in Secondary Education (H. F. Heath).

BULLETIN DE LA SOCIÉTÉ DES LANGUES VIVANTES, January to February, 1907: Le Libéralisme de notre Méthode Directe (Ch. Sigwalt); L'Espagnol dans l'Enseignement Secondaire (Saroihandy).

BOLLETTINO DI FILOLOGIA MODERNA, January, 1907: La Trascrizione fonetica nell' insegnamento (R. Lovera).

MODERNA SPRÅK. [We have pleasure in drawing the attention of our readers to this eminently readable journal, which has aims very similar to our own; it receives the support of two of the editors of the *Skandinavisk Månadsrevy*, which has passed away.] October, 1906: Chateaubriand (C. Polack); Dickensian Archaisms (L. D. Cane). December, 1906: Free Composition, Oral and Written (C. S. Fearenside); Chateaubriand (C. Polack).

EDITORIAL NOTE.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly; the next number will be issued on June 1st. The price of single numbers is 6d.; the annual subscription is 4s. The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Modern Language Association who have paid their subscription (10s. 6d.) for the current year. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 3, South Hill Park, London, N.W.; and subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45 (*not* 72), Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

VOLUME III. No. 4 **JUNE, 1907**

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

THE PLACE OF TRANSLATION.

WE welcome a contribution to the discussion from Professor Dr. W. Viëtor, than whom no one has a better right to speak for the Reform Movement. In the next issue we hope to publish a contribution from one of our colleagues of the French Association. All members desiring to join in the discussion are requested to address their communications to Mr. F. B. KIRKMAN, 19, Dartmouth Park Hill, London, N.W. As there seems likely to be a considerable demand upon our space, all letters should be as brief as possible.

It may be as well to repeat that the question under discussion is not, *Shall we abandon translation?* which implies that it is possible to do away with it entirely, but, *What is the right place of translation in modern (foreign) language instruction?* This includes the question whether it is desirable or not to abandon translation regarded as a valuable means of mental discipline, or as a method of teaching English in the time allotted to French and German.

III.

PROFESSOR DR. W. VIËTOR (*Marburg*).

THE present discussion having arisen partly from a comment of mine on the 'Curiosities in Translation' quoted by Mr. Kirkman in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, vol. ii., No. 5, I beg leave to say a few additional words on the subject in connexion with Mr. Latham's lecture (vol. iii., No. 2).

In the comment just alluded to I adopt Professor Rippmann's explanation of the above-said 'curiosities,' that 'schoolboys have been known to write such meaningless combinations of words under the impression that the words of a foreigner do not necessarily make sense.' Mr. Latham

does not think that a schoolboy is really such a fool. In his opinion it is the difficulty of the examination test that has to answer for such monstrosities. The test being beyond the capacity of the pupil, he makes 'a sporting venture—neck or nothing'; 'he knows he is writing nonsense, but trusts he shall have credit for the grain of sense in the bushel of chaff.' That is to say, Mr. Latham takes a somewhat different view of the process going on in the mind of the candidate, but agrees to the assumption that the boy writes nonsense, whilst perfectly aware of the fact.

Mr. Latham does not consider this state of things very alarming; yet he concedes that it is due to a faulty system—either the examinee having been badly taught, or the examiner having miscalculated the standard of the examination. With the latter possibility we are not at present concerned; the former is the point at issue.

I for one am convinced that the frequency, if not the very existence, of the 'curiosities' we are speaking of is indeed 'the normal result of translation.' Mr. Latham objects that he has come across such felicities of language in schoolboy papers as would not have done discredit to published translations of high repute. How does Mr. Latham know that it is the method that 'bears such fruit,' and that such results have not rather been reached *in spite of* a faulty system? In work of this kind very much depends on the general ability of the pupil, and the command he has of his native tongue. On the other hand, it is clear that there can be no 'curiosities in translation' where there is no translation at all.

Methods, however, must be judged not so much by what they avoid as by what they accomplish. Those systems which aim at keeping the study of a foreign language as far as possible independent of the mother-tongue are characterized by Mr. Latham as the 'watertight compartment' systems. It would hardly be fair to retort by calling his own the 'leaky vessel' system. Still, translational methods *do* encourage the continual 'warping strain' which the mother-tongue exercises on any other language that is to be acquired. To neutralize this as far as possible, we of the 'watertight compartment' systems try to exclude the mother-tongue during the actual hours of instruction. As Mr. Latham rightly remarks, it is neither feasible nor desirable to exclude it completely during the whole period over which the instruction in the foreign language extends. Were it feasible, the pupil—to use Mr. Latham's own words—'would doubtless acquire a mastery of that tongue scarcely attainable by other methods.' If praise from an opponent is praise indeed, we may well be proud of such a concession. Mr. Latham even goes to the length of thinking that by the time the new tongue was acquired in this way the idiomatic command of the mother-tongue would have been lost to an alarming extent. In support of this Mr. Latham quotes a personal experience which is, indeed, very instructive. After a prolonged residence abroad, during which he studiously avoided the use of his mother-tongue, he found that in attempting to speak it again he was translating from the foreign language. 'Was this,' he jocularly asks, 'to be traced to my having learned English by translational methods?' By no means. It was, of course, simply a case of what Mr. Latham calls the warping effect of the more familiar on the less familiar tongue. The conclusion to be drawn from this evidently is that the warping effect will be even very much stronger if the more familiar tongue is the native language, and the less familiar one a foreign language to which only a few hours a week can be devoted in class; and, further, that the best thing we can do to improve the chances of the foreign tongue is to exclude the mother-tongue as completely as possible. Mr. Latham warns us that by doing so we endanger the native language. There is, in fact, no such danger, because, as Mr. Latham himself tells us, 'for every stride made by the new

language, the mother-tongue makes a hundred.' 'It is the fable of the hare and tortoise, except that the hare does *not* take a nap.' Altogether, to my mind, Mr. Latham has thus far proved *my* case instead of his own.

As to thinking in the foreign language, which the 'direct system' substitutes for translation, Mr. Latham distinguishes three ways, corresponding approximately to conversation on everyday topics, to original composition, and to the intelligent reading of texts. Of these, he regards the third as the most important; the first and second as chiefly important as being ancillary to it; whilst the school whose views he is challenging would, in his opinion, be inclined to regard them as equally important, as equally attainable, and as to be approached broadly in the order in which he has enumerated them. In his analysis of the three forms of thinking in a foreign language, Mr. Latham even finds the explanation of the differences which divide the two schools of modern language teachers.

In this Mr. Latham is entirely mistaken. One of the fundamental principles of our 'new method' of modern language teaching is that the reading-book should be the centre of instruction; another, that the reading-book is to introduce the pupil gradually and from the beginning to foreign life and culture, as expressed in the literature of the nation. Being myself an old 'radical reformer,' I should like to illustrate this by quoting in outline the contents of a 'First English Reader for German Schools' that I have brought out in conjunction with a friend. I emphasize the fact that, with one or two exceptions at the outset, the compilation has been restricted to selections from *literature*, in the introductory part including nursery rhymes, whilst avoiding what is silly or affected, and leading up to poems—*e.g.*, by Longfellow and Kingsley—and to extracts from the Bible.

PART I.—(i.) *At Home:* 1. Getting up and Going to Bed. 2. Meals. 3. Nursery Rhymes, Riddles, etc. (ii.) *At School:* 1. Work. 2. Play. (iii.) *Farm, Garden Fields.*

PART II.—(i.) *Home Life.* (ii.) *England and the English.* (iii.) *Moral and Religious Life.*

APPENDIX A, Fairy Tales and Stories. APPENDIX B, Times and Seasons.

It will be seen that a graduated reader of a similar kind will easily lend itself to conversation, or, in other words, to thinking, in the foreign language, in the three forms that Mr. Latham describes.

I cannot follow Mr. Latham into every detail of his lecture. In conclusion, I should like to point out one of his assertions in praise of translational methods, which I must contradict. Mr. Latham would approach his third goal—the intelligent reading of texts—'by the short-cut of translation—translation *from* the foreign language.' Now, I ask, Which is really the shorter cut—the full comprehension of a foreign text, if only a newspaper paragraph, *at first sight*, or having to translate it into one's mother-tongue in order to get at its meaning? I am afraid Mr. Latham, as many have done before him, confounds what may be convenient for the teacher with what is beneficial to the learner himself.

No. If there is a method of short-cuts, it is not the 'indirect' system of the translators, but the 'direct' one of the New School.

IV.

MR. W. P. FULLER

(*University College School*).

THOUGH I do not add any fresh ideas to what has already been so well said by Mr. Latham and others on the value of translation in teaching modern languages, I should like to signify my agreement with their views. For some years I have experimented, as occasion offered, with different variations of the direct method, and books written for the purpose of teaching the method, and I have come to the conclusion that to adhere slavishly to the shibboleth of 'no translation' is to

put unnecessary difficulties in the way of pupils, without gaining a corresponding advantage. This seems to show itself particularly in one or two ways.

In the first place, it involves considerable waste of time. When the word for an object or idea is already known in the mother-tongue, it is obvious that the quickest and most accurate way to explain the meaning of a word or phrase in a foreign language is to give the known equivalent in the mother-tongue. The argument drawn from the child learning its own language is inconclusive, because, not to mention other reasons, the time at the disposal of the teacher in school bears no comparison whatever with the time taken by a child in learning its own language. Even supposing five hours a week are allowed for the language—that is, say, 195 hours per school year—the time is equivalent to less than three weeks of days of ten hours each, and one may be permitted to wonder how much of a foreign language a boy, say of ten, would learn in three weeks in a foreign country, among people who knew no English. Again, I have found that translation is practically the only means of making absolutely sure that pupils accurately understand what they read, and is a useful, if not absolutely necessary, preliminary to *questionnaires* and exercises on a passage. Otherwise pupils frequently give wrong answers, for the simple reason that they have failed to understand the original question in the foreign language. So far from previous translation forming a resistance to readiness in answering questions in the foreign language, the opposite seems to be the case, as far as my observation goes.

May I give an example that came recently under my immediate notice? A class that was being taught on the direct method had to be divided on account of size. The upper division was taught by an ardent believer in the 'no translation' method and an able exponent of it; the lower division, those rejected by the original master of the class, were taken over by a colleague who used translation; the text-book was *Dent's German Reader*. In the examination of the whole class held by the master of the upper division at the end of two terms, out of the first six boys, four were from the lower division and the others well divided.

The above remarks apply especially to first and second year pupils. For more advanced classes the case for translation seems to be even stronger, both from the point of view of economy of time and accuracy of conception. When it comes to dealing with anything in the nature of abstract ideas, or distinctions between words of very similar meaning, it seems futile to refuse, for theoretical reasons, to avail oneself of simple and ready means of making a point clear. I have noticed in the German-German vocabulary at the end of a well-known book on the direct method that a certain number of such words were left entirely unexplained—not, as it seemed to me, because the context made them by any means clear.

The basis of sound knowledge of a language is clear conception, and to sacrifice this for early fluency in imperfectly understood phrases seems to be a mistake not only educationally, but from the point of view of progress in the language. Translation is a means, not an end; but that it is a means, and a very useful means, towards the acquiring of a language is still very far from being disproved.

V.

Miss V. Partington

(Queen's College School).

Surely the answer to the question propounded in the Discussion Column of the April number of Modern Language Teaching as to the place of translation in modern foreign language teaching is to be found in the old proverb, 'Une place pour chaque chose, et chaque chose à sa place.'

Certainly, in the early stages of learning a language there is emphatically no place at all for translation into the foreign tongue. It is impossible to build without

materials, and some length of time must be given to the acquiring of the materials necessary for translating passages from the mother-tongue into the foreign.

Now, the time at the disposal of teachers and scholars being so limited and so very precious that it is not on any account to be wasted or frittered away heedlessly, it behoves us to set about giving these materials to our pupils in the most expeditious manner possible. We shall certainly not do so if we allow ourselves to lapse into English for the explanation of any word or slight difficulty which may crop up as we go along. No; the words and sentences already acquired by our pupils must be utilized and constantly repeated, and if they are not to grow rusty, they must be presented over and over again in fresh combinations of sentences and with fresh associations of thought. So that it is better to avoid, *as far as possible*, all translation into the mother-tongue, especially in the early days. This is quite feasible, as every earnest teacher of modern languages to-day will admit, if only the lessons are properly arranged and graduated from the beginning.

I say it is better to avoid the use of the mother-tongue *as far as possible*, for to become a slave to any system or theory, however good in itself this system or theory may be, is the worst fate that can befall a teacher. And there are occasions when a judicious but sparing use of the mother-tongue is a great saving of valuable time. On such occasions let it be used without hesitation; yet, habits being so easily formed and so hard to shake off, it is good for every teacher to keep well in mind that the ideal to be aimed at is the almost total exclusion of the children's own tongue in the earlier stages.

Later on, when a certain familiarity with the foreign idiom is established, and when free composition in it has *paved the way*, then translation both from and into the language is useful and desirable too for various reasons, most of which have been set forth so ably by other correspondents and by Mr. Latham himself that it is not necessary for me to go into them again here.

However, speaking personally, I would put this translation stage much later than it is generally placed at present—at least, with regard to translation into the foreign language. We should thus, I believe, avoid much of what Mr. Latham calls the 'warping strain,' because our pupils will, by their exercises in composition, have gone through a fair amount of training in expressing themselves idiomatically and gracefully, and they will have learned to avoid many pitfalls.

And with all due deference to a former correspondent, who claims that where translation has been neglected the 'literary side' has escaped the pupils, I venture to think that, on the contrary, where free composition has been properly taught, the 'literary side' has been presented to them at the outset from an undistorted and most natural point of view.

It is only at a later stage that their minds are ripe enough for a deeper spirit of literary criticism to be awakened sufficiently to enable them to take an intelligent interest and pleasure in comparing the foreign idiom with their own, and *vice versa*. And here it is, but not earlier, that translation will find its fitting place and render its greatest services.

VI.

Mr. A. B. Young

(Bristol Grammar School).

The fact that translation as a means of teaching modern languages is being gradually supplanted by more modern methods is, in itself, extremely satisfactory, but whether discarding it altogether—as some root and branch reformers wish—would be equally gratifying is another matter. To me it appears that in the initial stages it can hardly be of much use. Here the reading aloud of the language and hearing it spoken are most essential. The increased importance attached to the teaching of English subjects, and the retention of

Latin as an integral part of school training, preclude the possibility of devoting more than one period a day to the teaching of any modern language. In most schools, and especially in those where the attempt is made—and I think unwisely—to impart a knowledge of both French and German to the same pupil, considerably less time than this is at the disposal of the teacher. Should, then, some of these periods—already insufficient as they are—be taken up with translation, it seems obvious that no serious attempt can be made to familiarize the learner with the spoken tongue. Of course, this depends, to some extent, upon how the translation periods are used. If the teacher uses the subject-matter of about a page of some work, after the translation has been quickly gone through, as a basis for conversation, while employing all the time the language he is teaching, the oral method can be employed; but I am at a loss to see even in this instance why, in the lower forms, a wall-picture cannot be more advantageously used for the same purpose.

One of the arguments used in favour of translation is that it enables the pupil to get a clearer insight into French and German literature. This may hold good so far as the advanced classes of some of our larger schools are concerned, but does not apply, at any rate, to the initial stages of learning any modern language. In respect to the latter such a statement is nothing, more or less, than putting the cart before the horse. It is surely no good seeking to arouse interest in the literature of another country before you have fairly well taught the language in which it is written. The one question to decide is whether translation is as useful to this end as other methods are, and should it be found that it is not so, the only practicable thing to do is to discard using it as soon as possible. Another contention is that translation forces the pupil to face difficulties and think for himself. This may be the case where he is provided with a bare text and a dictionary, but it cannot be said to be so when one of the innumerable modern editions of French or German classics is used—provided with copious notes, in which nearly everything is either translated or explained. Besides, the pupil, provided he really means to work, can acquire for himself the information that is mostly imparted by means of these, whereas it is quite impossible for him, unaided by oral instruction, to learn how to speak any language fluently.

I think, therefore, that translation might possibly be used in teaching students who have already obtained a fair mastery over the language by the agency of the direct method, but am very glad that less importance is being attached to it as a means of acquisition of any modern language, and that its use for this purpose is being slowly but surely restricted.

VII.

MR. W. OSBORNE BRIGSTOCKE
(*Berkhamsted School*).

MR. LATHAM has made a spirited attack on what he calls 'the revolutionary party, whose intelligence, whose zeal, whose confidence in its own ideals is doubtless indispensable to overcome the dead weight of prejudice and routine.' I am sorry that not one of the 'revolutionary party' took up the challenge at once. Perhaps, after last month's chorus of praise, it is more necessary than before to ask Mr. Latham to explain clearly why he thus damns us with faint praise. If I, in turn, try to damn with fainter praise, I do so 'sans fiel et sans bassesse: mon caractere m'en éloigne et les tems m'en dispensent.'

It is very easy to accuse the 'revolutionists' of wishing to 'abandon every stone of the old edifice,' and to insinuate that we in our inspired moments use the language of William Lithgow and say: 'Now, as touching the hissing of snakish classicists, a tush for that snarling crew.' We may have burned our brothers; we have certainly tried to destroy some of them; but not even Cæsar would accuse us of forgetting to sift the ashes for the gold that may have been reduced by the cremation.

Was there ever such a ridiculous question as '*Shall we abandon translation?*' As if we could! As well might Big Ben ask all the clocks in London, 'Shall we abandon striking?' or apples ask, 'Shall we abandon pips?' And who are '*we*'? Surely a scandalous synecdoche by which *I* is made synonymous with *we*. *We* deal with theory; *I* with practice; and the problem of translation cannot be dealt with in this wholly theoretical way. The problem must be stated otherwise, and then worked out by individuals who can take local exigencies into consideration.

The problem, it seems to me, is this: What is translation, and what is its scope? What is the scope of my work? How far do the two coincide?

Let us consider, first, 'What is the scope of my work?'

(*a*) *Oral* work, which consists of learning to produce with conventional fluency and accuracy a sequence of intelligible speech-sounds and of acquiring an effective use of 'expression' of voice and gesture.

(*b*) *Aural* work, or the interpretation of speech-sounds and gesture.

(*c*) *Ocular* work, or the 'reading' of written or printed matter, which involves either the transference into speech-sounds or the understanding of suggested associations, or both.

(*d*) *Critical* work, which develops the faculty of estimating or comparing the significance and implication of aural and ocular cognizance of thought expressed in two or more languages.

Mr. Latham's argument amounts to this: The 'revolutionists' all say that translation has nothing to do with *a* or *b*. I know that translation is the very soul of *d*. Therefore the 'revolutionists' are neglecting the very soul of modern language teaching. Of course, if Mr. Latham had chosen to limit his question to *ocular* work, he would have touched a question that is far from a satisfactory solution, owing to lack of the facts of experience and of careful scientific investigation. Here we *do* cross swords with the classics, but only with regard to certain aspects of the question. Few will be so bold as to say that translation of any kind coincides with *oral* and *aural* work. By thus making his question cover various provinces of modern language teaching, Mr. Latham does but confuse confusion, which spells —— (Mr. Mantalini will supply the missing word).

The word 'translation' is usually applied to various mental exercises: (1) Interpreting by means of native speech-sounds (*a*) speech-sounds, (*b*) symbols (printed or written) of a foreign language. (2) Interpreting by means of native symbols (*a*) speech-sounds, (*b*) symbols of a foreign language. The translation from the native language into a foreign language would be 3 *a b* and 4 *a b*. If, therefore, we are dealing with only two languages, we have eight kinds of exercise, not by any means essentially similar, hiding behind the all-embracing ambiguity of the word 'translation.' No wonder, if such an able logician as Mr. Latham can dumbfound us with such ratiocination, '*Quod enim mavult homo verum esse, id potius credit*,' this can be the only criterion.

I hope that if Mr. Latham does me the honour of reading my argument, he will further honour me by considering the following problems:

1. Does translation of any kind have any part in *oral* or *aural* work? If so, on what grounds?

2. Does Mr. Latham believe that the 'revolutionists' have had time to prove that their attempt to dispense with translation of any kind in *ocular* work is a mistake? If not, is there any objection to their continuing to gather facts from experience, with a view to framing some logical conclusions regarding the value of the experiment?

3. Does Mr. Latham think that translation of any kind can be abandoned in what I have called *critical* work?

4. Does Mr. Latham always remember, when comparing the results of the 'revolutionists' with those of the *ancien régime*, that *oral* and *aural* work is now

being exacted in addition to the *ocular* and *critical* work, which used to constitute the whole of language teaching, living or dead; that the time given to it, if not considerably shorter, is never longer; that the *ancien régime* had traditional methods, and that the 'revolutionists' are bound to use methods more or less empirical? If so, is it quite fair to compare the results without making some allowance for this heavy handicap, which must tell even on men of such undoubted genius as the 'revolutionists'?

May I, in conclusion, forestall one obvious reply? 'Language teaching cannot be divided into departments labelled *oral*, *aural*, *ocular*, and *critical*, because students work at all four, and the work overlaps.' They do. But ought they to do so? Would it not be safer to divide our pupils into three categories: (*a*) Those who do *aural* and *ocular* work; (*b*) those who do these two and *oral* work; (*c*) those who do these three and *critical* work? All, of course, do the four kinds of work in the native language (it is quite possible and profitable to do critical work in one language only). But I think a mistake is being made by assuming that all students of modern languages belong necessarily to classes *b* or *c*. Are there not thousands at present wasting their time with *oral* work, which they have not time to do thoroughly, when they should be concentrating their efforts on mastering *aural* and *ocular* work? *Qui trop embrasse* . . .

VIII.

Mr. Hardress O'Grady
(*King's College School*).

Surely no one wants to do away with translation altogether! I have never heard any convincing arguments on behalf of such a proposition, but I do think we should do without translation of texts for the first three years of teaching. I will try to show my reasons. I have had the same difficulties as those of which Mr. Kirkman speaks, and I think, stating the point generally, that they are the result of too much English in the modern language lesson. When so much time is given to English, and so little to French or German, it is surely obvious that we should use the foreign language during the appointed periods as much as we can.

But I admit that it is possible to teach on oral methods in such a way as to get the same haziness, the same erroneous impressions as those of which Mr. Kirkman complains in translation lessons. This is a reflection on the teacher, not on the method. The haziness is the result of (1) imperfect visual and auditory impressions of the foreign words; (2) the enormous numerical superiority of fairly perfect, and, therefore, more correctly retained, impressions of the mother-tongue. My experience is that this haziness occurs much more frequently, infinitely more often, in the translation method than in the reform method, and I explain it by the fact that clear impressions cannot be given by stimulation of only one centre. The old psychological theory of a mental image of any particular thing, existing as a sort of framed picture in some lost corner of the cortex, lit up suddenly to appear to the inner consciousness, is discredited. The reproduction of words implies the intervention of several centres, and the theory of 'nerve-currents' is the only satisfactory explanation of the phenomenon of memory. Therefore, an appeal to several centres is stronger than an appeal to one or two. Here the reform method beats the translation-book.

I submit that if the foreign words are correctly, clearly, perfectly taught by pictures, by actions, by association in carefully built-up sentences, constantly repeated orally and in writing, the impressions will not fade, and the consequent clearness will make a thorough knowledge of the language a foregone conclusion. Some abstracts, some verbs, adjectives, and phrases cannot always be treated by pictures, actions, or associative methods. As the result is more important than the method, I urge that we should *translate* such things as cannot otherwise be presented as clear mental concepts; but I always feel I am committing a crime

when I speak English in school, and that it is I who am at fault for not being able to explain better.

Now, in translation work it is impossible to give complete impressions, because an appeal is made only to the auditory centres; the visual impression of the written word is weak, it lacks the force of the appeal to remembrance and experience of the picture, and to reason of the action or chain of associated words. Again, *two conflicting* impressions are given side by side, the foreign and the English word, and of these the English has been taught through the auditory and visual nerves, often through the tactile nerves, by taste and smell sometimes and by comparison, while the French impression is a thin wisp of smoke, the dying echo of the master's voice, the fading, never interesting, never clear reflection of several crotchety, ugly letters banded together to make a sound they do not represent.

Now, I do not wish it to be considered that because I am a believer in the reform method, I believe the reform method is generally adequately applied. Most emphatically I do not. The reform method requires very hard work, much ingenuity, careful preparation, ear-training, vigilance, and some knowledge of applied psychology on the part of the teacher. It requires also very much better continuation books than exist or than I could write, and it lends itself, alas! to brilliant and 'interesting' lessons which are so much 'showing-off,' and requires much thinking-out and organization. It lends itself —a great danger—to a certain dilettantism. But all these are not reasons why the reform method should not be used; they are reasons for requiring more zeal, more painstaking, more knowledge and sense of duty on the part of some teachers. And here I will cry 'Peccavi!' I am no self-righteous accuser of others. I am, like others, a human being, desiring ease in all things, and it is only of late that I have seen what a mess I was making of what I was pleased to call the reform method.

But if all this overwhelming wave of accusation can rise against slack, self-styled reform teachers, what shall we bring against those who float in the pools of translation? I, too, have taught on both methods, and watched in the old days the necessary throwing out of work of the major part of a form while one boy construed. I get now none of that in my reform work. Even in forms of twenty-nine boys (average age about 16) and thirty-six (average age about 11·6) I am fortunate in a high standard of attention. The reason is simple. Every boy in the form is given a chance to think for himself and to take part in the lesson.

It is, of course, quite obvious that the champions of translation work consider not at all the ease of overnight preparation. Had any such consideration weighed with them, they would not have exerted themselves to write the excellent articles in defence of their cause. But, none the less, the translation method is an easy method, and, I confess, to me both as a boy and as a master a tiresome, dull way of passing the time.

Lastly, those who advance the undoubted fact that translation is an admirable mental gymnastic will be the first to admit that it is a work of art. It requires a considerable knowledge of words and phrases and uses of both the languages, and in the first stages of learning such a knowledge of the language is obviously impossible. For that reason I consider we have two things to do. Firstly, I would teach adequately some 5,000 nouns and a proportionate number of verbs, adjectives, and necessary other parts of speech. These would be worked by intensive methods, by revision, utilizing them in oral free composition, conversation, memory-work, rapid reading of texts, careful reading of a few texts, written answers, exercises on points of grammar and syntax, written composition, using indexed note-books for the arranging of new words under headings. Then only should I venture on translation, and treat it as a fine art.

THE FRENCH HOME.

THE French have a great reputation abroad, but I cannot say it is altogether favourable to them. In England, for instance, they are known as a frivolous nation, incapable of thinking long over great things, who, when they take to an idea, drop it at once, to pass on to another. Besides, however, they are known as generous folk, ready to do their utmost for the sake of humanity; their history would supply many examples of their generosity. But, as a rule, the French are thoroughly misunderstood, or, what is perhaps worse, they are badly known.

When the English travel through France, they see but very little of French life and customs. They naturally go to the hotels and the restaurants, and life in those places is pretty much the same in all European countries. They walk round the towns and have a look at the monuments. When in Paris, a 'promenade' on the 'boulevards' —that perpetual fair—forces itself upon the travellers. There they see a restless crowd. Men and women alike seem to rush to their pleasure. The thought of pleasure seems to be the only one to occupy their heads; it is an incessant rush to the various places of amusement, of which 'gay Paris' is so proud.

'Gay Paris' indeed! These words are repeated all over the world. Paris, the brightest, but the wickedest and most dangerous, of all towns—in fact, the right capital, the only capital, suitable for that vain and frivolous French people; the place of all evils, as I often heard it called!

And, as if that were not enough to make foreigners despise us, there are the theatres, with the 'latest plays,' 'essentially French,' as they are now called, so much is the idea of wickedness attached to all that is French in English minds. There are our books also, our novels, our comic papers, in all of which the inevitable story of treachery and of unfaithfulness is told and retold.

What do not those travellers say against the French? Oh, they like them, no doubt! They are so amusing, so fiery and excitable, so obliging even. But trust them—never!

Foreigners are too ready to judge from what they believe to be our usual life, and they only know the exception, the life of a few, with whom are mixed ever so many foreigners. But this life is not our real life. If those tourists would go further on into old France, into the old provincial life, instead of remaining quartered in Paris or some other big fashionable town, they would *really* learn to know what French life is like. They would feel they have wrongly judged us, and they would acknowledge that French women are good wives, good mothers, and good friends.

There is a tendency to strengthen the relations between England and

France, and the *Entente Cordiale* is a tangible proof of goodwill on both parts ; but I am afraid no lasting friendship can exist where the understanding is not complete—and we certainly are far from knowing one another !

English life, however, is open to all. When a stranger goes to England, he enters the 'home' of his guest. In France 'we receive in the hotels and restaurants,' and there lies the greatest difference between the two peoples. 'The foreigner is ready to believe there are some other reasons' which prevent us from opening our homes. We are *too* reserved. We do not show ourselves enough in our usual light. Want of show, perhaps ? I really do not think so : timidity, rather. But, thanks to that custom of ours, nothing of our family life, of our private and more intimate life, is known.

In the course of the visit which the London County Council paid us last year, Sir Edwin Cornwall deplored that fact. An immense good, he said, 'impossible to overrate,' would result from a more intimate knowledge of each other.

But the English parents, who only know France through what they may have 'seen' (?), read, or heard, hesitate before sending their children to that land of perdition. They hesitate as well when they are asked to receive in their own house a French child : they seem to think the presence of that poor creature is sure to contaminate everything it approaches.

It is, indeed, difficult to represent to English parents that French boys are not any worse than their own sons, and that French girls are as modest as their sisters across the Channel ; that in France mothers are as motherly as anywhere else, and that they devote themselves entirely to their children, as much as any English lady !

When this is made clear and *is* accepted, another era will begin. An exchange of children will be possible between England and France, and the result is sure to prove most profitable. The boys living in a foreign country will learn how to speak the language—an advantage nowadays indispensable to a cultivated man—and therefore learn to understand better the people and the country itself.

What better, nicer, and cheaper way could be proposed to afford our children an opportunity of acquiring a foreign tongue ? You send your child to a good, reliable family across the Channel, and you receive in exchange a child of that same family : the very exchange is a moral as well as a material guarantee, which reassures all mothers, even the most wary.

A French society, which for nearly five years has worked, so to speak, in silence, has tried with some success to act as an intermediary for those who had no friends or no acquaintances abroad.

Although a private society, its importance, or rather the importance of its aims, are so evident,

that it has been subsidized by the French Government, the Paris Municipal Council, etc. Besides, it is patronized by men such as Mr. Pierre Baudin, the former Minister (its President), Mr. d'Estournelles de Constant, its Honorary President, and by men of the Institute and others of great standing in France.

If I insist on these facts, it is to draw the attention of the English public to the high importance of a closer understanding between the two nations. Moreover, it has already done some excellent work: against 25 exchanges as made in the first year (1903), there were 45 in 1904, 66 in 1905, and in 1906 120 children were sent from France to a foreign country, and *vice versa*.

This way of exchanging from family to family, from 'home to home' is, I think, even better than that from town to town, or school to school, which Sir E. Cornwall belauded. For, owing to the horrid system of French schools, of that so hated and pernicious *internat*, this last form is well-nigh impossible. Our schools seem like prisons to the English boys. I remember having seen some of them in a *lycée*; they hated it and were miserable.

On the other hand, the *Étudiant* system—that of a free life in a big town—would by no means be desirable, or at least could only be suitable for the elder ones.

But the family life is an excellent one. An English father who had tried the exchange wrote: 'I think the system of international exchange of young people is excellent, not only for the benefit they derive in the acquirement of another language, but also for the opportunity they have in seeing the manners and customs of another country. As a consequence, good feeling is promoted between the two nations. . . . I feel that my own little boy Hubert has had every care and consideration from the parents of André, and the exchange will be the means of our always preserving a kindly remembrance of the French home.'

An English schoolmaster writes also: 'I have heard nothing but praise from the parents of the boys exchanged.

'The good feeling between the boys exchanged and the families has been very marked, and in each case the parents have told me that they were very sorry to see the young Frenchman go.

'I have seen the boys who were interchanged, and I have great pleasure in stating that their conduct was excellent during their stay in Southampton; in fact, we on this side are much pleased with the exchanges.'

However, owing to that distrust which the English have for the French, the result has so far been very meagre. The Germans seem to have much better understood the advantages of an exchange: they sent us ninety-seven children, against only fourteen English!

Let us hope that the English will awake to that new idea. Both

nations can only profit by it. The penetration of the two peoples is more than useful: it is *necessary*. Thus a common feeling would be created, which might even be worked into common institutions.

'What better champion,' writes the eminent chairman of the society, Mr. P. Baudin, 'could liberty chose for itself than this new Anglo-French citizen: English, passionate of liberty for itself, and French, ready to die for the liberty of others? . . . As soon as England will be ready to co-operate frankly in that idea, it will conquer the world!'

C. A. Le Neveu.

[The Society to which M. Le Neveu refers is the *Société d'Échange International des Enfants et des Jeunes Gens*, 36, Boulevard de Magenta, Paris. Further information can be obtained from the Hon. Secretary of the Modern Language Association, 45, South Hill Park, Hampstead, N.W.]

THE WORKING OF A GERMAN TRAINING-COLLEGE.

The question of the training of secondary teachers has been of late, and is still, so much before the public that it may possibly be of interest to some to read a short description of the working of a German Government Training College for Secondary Teachers, the so-called 'Lehrerinnen Seminar.'

The aim of the student entering such a Seminar is to obtain a certificate which will qualify her to seek a post as teacher in a Höhere Töchterschule in Germany, a type of school corresponding to an English High School for girls.

Such colleges and schools are, as is undoubtedly now generally known, under the direct control of the Government, whether it be that of Prussia or any other State of Germany. The Government appoints the members of the staff, and issues all regulations regarding holidays, hours of attendance, fees, etc., and both colleges and schools are subject to frequent inspection. Often the Seminar is in the hands of the same staff as the Höhere Töchterschule of the town. This has the advantage of obviating the difficulties in connexion with a 'practising school'; further advantages are the facts that no time is lost in going to and from the school, and that the children are of the same class as those with which the student will have to deal when she becomes a teacher. If the Töchterschule is not used for the purpose of giving the students practical experience, they have either to go to the Volksschule or Bürgerschule (National School or Board School), or in some instances there is a specially arranged school with low fees. If the former is the case, they are limited in subjects (no English or French); if the latter, the children

will suffer from want of consecutive teaching, this not being felt in a large school where a wider range of classes gives scope for distribution of the trial lessons so that they do not occur too frequently in any one class.

The description given here is the outcome of personal experience and study at such a college, and consequently that of one particular institution, but it will probably be found that it corresponds in all points of importance with that which might be given of any college of this kind in Germany, although there may be, and no doubt are, minor differences.

The colleges are non-residential. A student can enter the Seminar at the age of eighteen, on passing an oral examination showing that she has attained the average standard of the highest class (I) of a Töchterschule in all general subjects and English and French. Classics and Mathematics are but rarely taught in girls' schools in Germany.

The course of study extends over a period of two and a half years. The hours of attendance are—in the summer from 7 to 11 and 2 to 4 on Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday, and from 7 to 12 on Wednesday and Saturday; in the winter they are from 8 to 12 and 8 to 1 respectively. The homework for each day occupies between five and six hours. The holidays are as follows: at Christmas, Easter, and Michaelmas about a fortnight, and the whole month of July. There are certain days which must officially be regarded as holidays, such as the Emperor's birthday, anniversary of the Battle of Sedan, etc. On these days students and scholars are expected to attend a school celebration of the event (Schulfeier), consisting in singing and recitations. In the spring and autumn an expedition is made into the country by the whole college and school, the former called a 'Maigang,' the latter a 'Herbstgang.' Work is suspended on summer afternoons if by mid-day the thermometer has reached a certain point and it is considered unsafe to be out in the sun.

Of the building nothing need be said, as it resembles that of any similar institution in England.

During the first year the student is a member of Class II. She continues her studies in all the general subjects: Scripture, History, Geography, German (Literature and Language), English, French, Arithmetic (including Geometrical Drawing), Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Zoology, Writing (Schönschreiben), Drawing, and Needlework.

The ground to be covered during the two and a half years in each subject is a very wide one, as no special section or period is set. Scripture means history of the Bible and Church history. History means universal history from the beginnings up to present times, prominence, of course, being given to that of Germany. Geography includes physical and political geography of the world and a smatter-

ing of astronomy. German comprehends Grammar, Composition, Literature of all times, a little Philology, and the special study of two works chosen by the Principal. The study of natural science includes the four branches mentioned above, more time being given to Chemistry and Physics than to Botany and Zoology.

The standard to be attained by the study of English and French is a very high one; the student is expected to learn to speak and write in the foreign language with fluency and precision, and to become in some measure acquainted with the writings of the principal authors. The lectures are given respectively in English and French. The Drawing results are not of a very high order, the standard being far below that of English schools. Needlework covers all plain sewing, embroidery, lace-making, knitting, crochet, and the elements of cutting out.

Except in the cases of the foreign languages and arithmetic little written 'homework' is done compared with the amount given in English schools, as in the other subjects very extensive reading is expected. Oral tests are given, such as brief reproductions of the previous lecture, or a criticism founded on the independent study of some literary works, some war, some geographical feature of a country, the result of a simple scientific experiment, etc.

No exemption is permitted from any of these subjects to students who are working with a view to obtaining the certificate. The first year's course also includes two lectures a week on Psychology, as a preliminary step towards the theoretical and practical training of the future teacher. The lecturers are careful also in the course of their instruction to give many hints for future use in the teaching of the subject in question, pointing out where difficulties are likely to occur, and how by method and care these can be, to some extent, avoided.

From the beginning of the second year's work the hours given to the acquiring of knowledge in the various subjects are diminished, as now begins a course of the study of theory of pedagogy and of practical training. In addition to this the student listens to lessons given by the members of the staff in the different classes of the Töchterschule (this is known as 'Hospitieren'); she writes out in full plans of lessons on a given subject for criticism; and from the beginning of the second half of the second year she herself gives at intervals test lessons in the presence of her fellow-students, the master whose place she is taking, and the Principal (Herr Direktor). The Principal afterwards makes the necessary criticisms for the benefit of herself and her fellow-students, who are called upon sometimes to point out the mistakes made, for which they are, as a rule, only too ready for the peace of mind of the giver of the lesson under discussion!

The frequency of the lessons allotted to each student depends on the number then attending the college; it amounts on an average to one in six weeks. A very thorough preparation is demanded for these lessons; the student is told exactly what portion of the subject is to be handled. She discusses it with the master, she writes out a plan of the lesson, which he goes through, but she is expected to give the lesson without any notes.

It will be seen that although the actual number of lessons given by each individual student is not very great, yet she reaps the experience of every one given by a student of her year. If a master or mistress should be temporarily absent, a student is at once called upon to show her capability by taking his or her place.

As the time of the examination approaches specimens are prepared of each student's writing, drawing, and needlework; these disappear mysteriously, as it seems to the student, and are heard of no more; presumably they are sent to the educational department of the Government for inspection, for later on the certificate will show in what grade the student has passed in these subjects.

The examination itself lasts four or five days, and is conducted with great solemnity. Every candidate must clothe herself in black, this being an irrevocable, although unwritten, law, just as indisputable a fact as the black dress demanded of the candidate presenting herself for Confirmation in the German Church.

The examination is principally oral, papers only being written in English, French, Arithmetic, and German Essay, the subject chosen for the last being either a psychological or pedagogical theme. Each student provides her own writing materials; she must write on paper without lines, but she is allowed the use of a so-called 'Linienblatt,' on which the lines are ruled so darkly that they are to be seen through the writing-paper. She is warned that her work is expected to be perfectly neat and well written. The time allowed for these papers is from two to three hours.

The oral examination takes place, after the written one is finished, before the whole staff and the great and awe-inspiring 'Herr Schulrat,' the Minister of Education deputed to conduct it. The questions on each subject are put by the lecturer who has given the instruction during the course, but the Herr Schulrat can add or suggest any questions he chooses. Three or four questions on each subject fall to each candidate, and in the case of English or French she must in addition read aloud in the language. Then comes the last and most trying part of an altogether trying time: each student must give her trial lesson before the Herr Schulrat and the rest, the subjects having been allotted about a week before. No help is allowed in the preparation of this trial lesson. When

these are completed the staff at once confer, and soon each candidate is summoned in turn, and is told whether she has been successful or not, and in what grade she has passed. The certificate which she later receives, a very formal and wordy document, shows the standard attained in the different subjects, putting the numbers I., II., or III. after each, qualified by the words 'sehr gut,' 'gut,' or 'genügend.'

Apart from the usefulness and value of this certificate (which in its full title is 'Zeugnis des Staatsexamens für Lehrerinnen an Höheren Töchterschulen'), it is, as most people will probably agree, a good one for a foreigner who wishes to teach German in her own country to take as her aim, as no allowance is made for her being a foreigner, and of necessity she must be fluent in German, and her knowledge of words must widen as she studies each subject and becomes acquainted with its technicalities. Also, the fact must not be omitted of the possible advantages of the study and experience of German method and practice.

But the student would do well first to make sure of her general fluency and knowledge of German before deciding on entering such a college, as with the vast amount of reading which has to be accomplished there will be no time for translation and use of dictionaries.

EDITH M. BEALES.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN GERMAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,

I am greatly indebted to the Committee of this Vacation Course,* and in particular to the Rev. Mr. Cranage and to Dr. Breul, for giving me this opportunity of speaking to you. It is with great diffidence, however, that I enter upon my task. I am not a good speaker even in my own language, and I should not have dared to address you in a foreign tongue if I had not been expressly told that this would be the most acceptable manner. I feel all the more diffident as I have only just come back from a stay of some weeks in Scotland, and am afraid that you may with critical ear detect some lingering trace of the influences upon me of the English spoken north of the Tweed. It has been now and then hinted to me while I was there that my English was very southern; it may be that you now find it is rather northern. At all events, if you detect anything strange and unfamiliar, I hope you will be lenient with me, and forgive a poor benighted foreigner who means well, however imperfect his performance may be.

The first thing, I think, I have to do before entering upon the ques-

* This lecture was delivered at the Cambridge Vacation Course in August, 1906.

tion of the teaching of English in Germany will be to explain in a few words how German schools are organized, and what are the schools in which English is taught. To make things clearer, and to avoid entering upon less important details, I had better restrict myself to an explanation of the Prussian system, mentioning only where desirable or necessary differences found in other States.

The schools supposed to be frequented by everybody's children are what we call the *Elementar-*, or *Volks-*, or now and then *Bürgerschulen*. They receive children at six years of age, and teach them the elements of Scripture, German language and literature, arithmetic and geometry, history, geography, botany, zoology, science, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. Occasionally there are games for some of them, and swimming in summer. In some schools there are cookery classes with some teaching of domestic economy and sloyd, and the girls generally do some needlework. These schools take their pupils up to the age of fourteen (in Bavaria to thirteen only, except in some towns, as Munich, Nuremberg, etc.). They are, in the greater part of Prussia, not frequented by the children of the well-to-do classes; these are generally sent to the *Vorschulen* (preparatory schools) of the secondary schools, and sometimes to the *Mittelschulen*. These *Mittelschulen* (as they are called in Prussia) are a kind of higher-grade school, where one foreign language (French) is taught as an obligatory subject, and where English, in some rare cases, can be taken as an optional subject. In the South of Germany the name given to such schools, if they exist at all, is rather *Gehobene Volksschule*, and *Mittelschule* is there what with us in Prussia is termed *Höhere Schule*.

The *Vorschulen* (preparatory schools) do not teach any foreign language. They have three years instruction in elementary subjects, very much as the *Volksschulen*, only covering more ground than these can do, as the classes are smaller and the boys come from more cultivated homes. Some Prussian provinces, as, for example, Westphalia, hardly have *Vorschulen*, and Bavaria has none at all, the children, almost without exception, frequenting the *Volksschulen* (elementary schools) for four years before they go up to a *Gymnasium*, *Realgymnasium*, etc. This, I think, is socially the better plan, and should be generally adopted, as it helps to a better understanding of the classes, and tends to raise and elevate the masses.

In the elementary, just as in the preparatory, schools no foreign language is taught. There is an exception, however, at Hamburg. There English is taught for one or two years even in the elementary schools. The aim is to lay a foundation for some practical knowledge of that language which Hamburg constantly requires for its commerce with this country, its colonies and dependencies, and the

United States, and you will probably agree with me in thinking that the Hamburg people in taking this course show some commonsense or good business instinct.

In other parts of Germany a foreign language is only taught in the *Mittelschulen* (or higher grade schools), and this foreign language is mostly French. English is, here and there, taught as an optional subject; but this is generally not done on a very sound basis, and the results are comparatively poor, as the time given to it is insufficient, the books used are not very good, and the teachers in most cases inadequately prepared for their task

Of our secondary schools the *Gymnasien* are the oldest and most frequented; they have as many pupils as all the other kinds of schools together or more. They teach Greek, Latin, and French as compulsory subjects; English and Hebrew are optional. The latest regulations for Prussian secondary schools have, however, introduced some change, inasmuch as English may now be taken instead of French when the boys are promoted to the *Ober-Sekunda* (your Upper Fifth or Lower Sixth Form). English is then taught as an obligatory subject for three periods a week, while French becomes optional with two hours a week.

The general course is that French is compulsory, and English may be taken as an additional subject when the pupils enter the *Ober-Sekunda*, which means that the boys have previously had six years' instruction in Latin, three in Greek, and four in French, and are continuing their studies in these three languages. The time they give to English is two periods a week. When I was a schoolboy this way of teaching English was not very satisfactory. The boys who took it were not very keen on it, nor was the master, who very often himself brought a rather insufficient knowledge into class, and the books followed more or less the lines on which Latin and Greek were taught, or, if not, were very trite and commonplace. There were so and so many lessons, each lesson generally arranged so as to give first a paradigm and some rules, with a few examples following; then a list of words, after which followed a piece of translation from English into German, and another piece or two for translation into English. These pieces mostly consisted of detached sentences treating any subject that the author might have happened to think of, or that might just have come handy to illustrate the rule of grammar which was being 'dispatched.' There might be a sentence on Alexander the Great, or on Cæsar; one on Siberia, and another on the invention of the art of printing; one about the old blacksmith's garden, and one about the superiority of water as a beverage over beer or wine. In fact, it was of no consequence at all what these sentences were about as long as they served to illustrate the grammatical rule under discussion. This

method — if it may be called a method—served to render us altogether callous as to the meaning of the sentences we were required to translate; as a matter of fact, I don't think we cared if there was a meaning at all. Then the rules which these sentences were intended to illustrate were in many cases only made up, just as artificial and surprising to an Englishman very likely as, *e.g.*, the five declensions in Otto's German book were to me when I came over to this country thirty-two years ago, and had to teach German according to the notions of that good old man, who certainly meant very well, but contrived to make rather a mess of his mother-tongue and mine — at least, so I thought then and still think now. In most cases the 'author' had a very imperfect notion of the English language himself, and even when he proceeded to treat us to a bit of connected narrative, or an anecdote, or a short story, or a piece of poetry, managed to give us something very unlike the English of the middle of the nineteenth century—let us say, an anecdote which he had found in an eighteenth-century collection, or an old story about Diogenes, or a piece of Dryden's. When an author came to be read, it was a very common thing to begin with *The Vicar of Wakefield*, and I think I can still hear the voice of my master saying, 'I was ever of opinion,' etc. Pronunciation was a thing that gave us very little trouble indeed. We were told the English alphabet began with *e*, *bi*, *si*, and ended with *eks*, *wei*, *set*; and we succeeded admirably in using our native *es* instead of either *z*, *s*, ð or þ. It was all one to us, and so it was (more or less) to our master. This state of things lasted for a considerable number of years, and it led to Dr. Trautmann's saying, some time in the seventies, that the pronunciation of modern foreign languages in German schools was awful. It is better now.

So is the teaching of English in our *Gymnasien*, on the whole. The books used are generally written by competent men, who aim at getting the boys to read, speak, and write easy modern English in the shortest possible time, and make them begin reading an author as soon as it can be done. There must be a certain reservation as to 'modern' English, though. It is not always quite up to date; some of the men who compile such schoolbooks still retain a kind of affectionate regard for anecdotes of musty flavour; and the text-books used afterwards are mostly chosen from authors of the first part of the nineteenth century: Washington Irving, Dickens, and Macaulay are the special favourites. There are others who are very modern indeed, and who do not hesitate to give a whole term to reading *Three Men on the Bummel*, which I think is rather worse than a more old-fashioned book written by a better author. Then, according to a time-honoured tradi-

tion, still, I am happy to say, kept up, at least one play of Shakespeare's is read at the *Gymnasien*, as a finishing touch to the English studies of the Sixth Form boys before they go up to college. Shakespeare is an author almost as well known with us as the great classical writers of Germany themselves. We owe this to the excellent translation—or rather version — published in the beginning of the nineteenth century, and known by the names of Schlegel and Tieck. He is read in schools in the German translation too, and his plays are often acted in our theatres. His name and work is one of the strongest connecting-links between this country and Germany. So may it ever remain!

You see that the teaching of English in our *Gymnasien* is *not* placed on a very broad basis. It is only optional, and there are only three years, with two periods a week, given to it. Yet in the hands of a competent master, who succeeds in interesting his boys, and who gives a very short time to preliminaries only, and at once sets to work to speak and read and write modern English and good authors, it can give a very fair introduction to the study of this language, and lay the foundations for good work afterwards.

In the *Realgymnasien* English is a compulsory subject. According to the general plan, it is begun in what we call *Untertertia* (your Upper Third or Lower Fourth, I think), when the boys are twelve or thirteen; and six years, with three periods a week, are given to it. Latin, with seven or eight lessons a week, is begun three years earlier, and French in the year before, with five hours weekly. Latin continues up to the end, with five, or at least four, lessons every week, while French goes on with four. English, therefore, takes only the third place, Latin having been the favourite for centuries, and French being considered the more polite and the more difficult of its two modern rivals. The official Prussian regulations state as the aim of the *Realgymnasien* for English that the pupils should be enabled to understand the writings of some of the great authors since Shakespeare, and that they should speak and write English to some extent. This, of course, means a great deal. Let me give you an extract of the scheme laid down for this study by our official authorities.

The first thing required is the acquisition of a good pronunciation by means of practical exercises. A short preliminary course should be given; the pupils should be trained by continual exercises, and the pronunciation should at no stage of the teaching ever be lost sight of or neglected. As the pupil progresses, the master should try to get him to speak more fluently and with a proper intonation. This, it is said, will at the same time prove a help towards a better pronunciation of German. It is significant that such a remark should be added. While it recognizes, on the one hand, that such a training is necessary for the

foreign language, no systematic course is prescribed, nor is the word 'phonetics' as much as mentioned. On the other hand, the regulations for German do not go beyond advising in a general way that the master should be careful in his speech, and teach the boys to read, speak, and recite with a good articulation; while, but for that one casual remark on the good influence of a sound training in the pronunciation of modern foreign languages, nothing is said of the importance of a systematic training of the ear and of the organs of speech for the acquisition of a really good pronunciation of the mother-tongue *prior* to learning foreign languages. I was very much struck with the admirable results obtained with children in the infants' department by Miss Dale at Wimbledon, whose *Readers*, if you do not happen to know them, I would warmly recommend to your study. And the other day, at a discussion on some questions of Modern Language teaching in Edinburgh, I was delighted to hear a Scotch colleague state that they were all agreed on the necessity of phonetic training in the mother-tongue as a preliminary to the study of foreign languages, and that such a training was of the greatest importance for the study of English. It was in 1894, at the meeting of Modern Language Teachers at Karlsruhe, that Professor Förster, of Bonn University, particularly emphasized this argument, and it has since come to be universally recognized by us. The authorities, however, and a great many teachers of German, still adhere to the older maxim—that this is a thing which is learnt at home, and needs no special care at school. Anybody who has had to teach in a neighbourhood where a marked dialect is spoken, and who has given his attention to this point at all, will agree with me in the conviction that there is an absolute necessity for teaching the children to pronounce their mother-tongue *well*. It would be an excellent thing, at the same time, if we could agree on the question what *is* the right pronunciation of our mother-tongue. There is a tendency in this country to object to London English as being cockney. Northern English or Scotch, again, is considered provincial. But I have been told on good authority that the difference between *well-educated* northern English, or Scotch, and southern English is much less than would appear to many; and although in the course of my peregrinations in this country since the middle of June I have been able to hear a good many differences of pronunciation in different places and with different people, yet the difference to me appears much less with educated people everywhere than between the educated and the lower classes in the same place. And I think there is a growing tendency in this direction, which, as education advances, will affect the masses.

It is very much the same in France. Just as people have cried out

in this country against Dr. Sweet's transcript of modern English speech as being cockney and vulgar, so do many in France against M. Passy. Yet it may happen that in doing so they unconsciously use the very pronunciation they are so strongly animadverting upon.

Germany has not been so fortunate as England and France in being united and having an effective capital of its own; and even now Berlin is not for us what London is for England, or Paris for France. The German dialects have had a much longer and stronger life, and still continue very vigorous all over the country. But owing to the exertions of eminent phoneticians, among whom I may safely mention my old friend Viëtor in the first rank, we are coming to a kind of understanding among those who are interested in the question, which, I think, will ultimately lead to the general acceptance of what is called *Die Bühnenaussprache* (according to the book published by Professor Siebs in conjunction with the special committee appointed for that purpose some years ago). I am sure foreigners who adopt that pronunciation will be safe, and find that their standard will be recognized as good all over Germany.

We are not in the same happy position with regard to English, and I am afraid some of our British friends in the north will not readily approve of our adopting Dr. Sweet's spoken English as standard English. We are tolerably safe, however, if we only take it in the right spirit, and, above all, if we never forget that Dr. Sweet does *not* mean us to use the abridged forms of common rapid speech in speaking or reading slowly and carefully. He is totally averse to slovenly speech and utterance, and thinks that there is nothing more dangerous for beginners than that they should be taught to pronounce words and groups of words and phrases in the way in which they are pronounced in ordinary conversation when they are still struggling painfully with every single sound. I know this from his own assurances. But he is equally averse to people using 'strong forms,' and carefully enunciating every single word when they want to say a simple thing in everyday language. Just as the one sounds low and vulgar, so the other is stilted and unnatural. Of course, there is an enormous difference between the careful utterances of a preacher in the pulpit and the easy talk of two friends, and it would be preposterous in a teacher to encourage his boys in slovenly English where an Englishman would scrupulously articulate every sound and every syllable. It is certainly safer to err in excess of exactness than to incur the imputation of negligence and vulgarity.

After these rather cursory remarks on the importance of acquiring a good pronunciation, our official regulations go on to demand careful reading, some conversation in every lesson, and a knowledge of a certain number of words and phrases. They advise that the conversation should

have some connexion with the text read in class, but there should be conversation on the conditions and events of everyday life as well. To render these more attractive maps and pictures might be used, the latter not to be inartistic and crude, and to convey useful information. These conversations should not degenerate into a mere play of words, nor should the subjects treated be of too slight and trivial a nature. Subjects in which there is a connexion or relation between the life of the foreign people and German life ought to be carefully kept in view. All this is sound advice, but it is rather difficult to carry out. It is far from easy (without being commonplace) to keep up a conversation in class with pupils who have a very slight knowledge of the foreign language, and can only with difficulty string a few words together. Nor is it easy to get artistic pictures, etc., which at the same time convey useful information, and to talk about them intelligently and without impairing the appreciation of their artistic value. As a matter of fact it is terribly difficult, particularly in the case of English. If any one of you would be kind enough to point out to me where there is a chance of getting really good and instructive pictures of English life and customs in town and country, on land and sea, of English scenery and art (especially architecture), of important historical events, and eminent men and women, I should be exceedingly grateful. Of course, they should be large enough to be used in class, and they must not be very expensive. I should not only be exceedingly grateful, but get this communication inserted in the *Neuere Sprachen*, and so make it more generally serviceable, and I am sure it would be widely appreciated. The thing we generally get in this way is very seldom the thing we want.

It is significant that our authorities think it essential to draw attention to the relations between Germany and the country whose language is being learned, and that they insist on these relations not being lost sight of. By placing this injunction in close proximity with the advice not to dwell too largely on passing events and ordinary topics of the day, they prove that they want us to bring home to our pupils the really important features of international life, of the history and present state of the great nations of the world, which is a thing of paramount importance for a better understanding and more friendly intercourse between this country and France and Germany. We know that excellent work has been done lately in this direction outside the boundaries of humble school-life, in which this University has had its share. It is an excellent thing, however, if such feelings of peace and good-will are fostered betimes in the hearts of the growing generation; and if this is more generally done, it will go far towards preventing misunderstandings and animosities which too often arise

only from imperfect knowledge of the real sentiments of other nations, and misrepresentations made by malicious or narrow-minded and inconsiderate persons. All this would be altogether impossible if we knew each other really well, and the school-teacher can do good service in this noble task of mediation.

Our regulations go on to recommend that a not too limited stock of words and phrases should be acquired, and that everyday life should not be forgotten in this. They advise that the reading-book and pictures be used for this purpose, and they hint that a systematic vocabulary might be serviceable. I very much doubt if this would really be the case; I am rather inclined to think that it would tend to render this part of the study dry and unpalatable alike to master and pupil. Words and phrases can hardly be learnt and remembered unless they are connected with a text which is read and commented upon, and which, in case of need, allows us to retrace the connexion in which the expression was first acquired. Or we may in the course of a conversation come across some expression that strikes us as new and worth remembering, and by repeating it to ourselves, and making use of it as soon or as often as can conveniently be done, retain it in our memory.

But I do *not* think that anybody ever derived much benefit from trying to commit to memory detached words and phrases such as are found in most of these books. I am sure Mr. Gouin did not, although he managed to learn the whole of a German dictionary by heart in a month's time. Such books as Dr. Kron's *Little Londoner* are certainly more useful, since they contrive to bring the necessary words and phrases into some kind of natural connexion. But I am afraid they are hardly ever free from artificiality and restraint, and are certainly better used as books of reference than as text-books in class. The proper way of utilizing texts for the acquisition of a serviceable vocabulary appears to me to be a careful selection of such terms as occur repeatedly in the context, omitting all that is rare and exceptional, and arranging them in a systematic order, according to their meaning, and, now and then, also according to form, etymology, etc. Thus, in reading a tale about the Armada, a selection might be made of words and phrases referring to ships and men-of-war, to sailors and sea-life and warfare, to the victualling and provisions for sailors and soldiers, to the sea itself, to storms and gales and hurricanes, and so on. The best thing would be if these collections were made in class, and if the master succeeded in getting the boys to ask each other questions about them—one boy, *e.g.*, mentioning a word or phrase, another quoting the context in which it was found, another giving another quotation to the same effect, one more mentioning a place in which the same word may have been used in a different mean-

ing, or another word with a similar sense, and so on, with as many variations as seem possible and advisable, to keep the boys interested in this kind of work. This excellent exercise does away with a good deal of the drudgery entailed by committing words and phrases to memory simply by repeating them over and over again, with no stimulus but the desire to have done with them as soon as possible. If anyone among my audience ever comes to Frankfort, and gets a Government permission to visit the *Musterschule*, he may see this done to perfection by Direktor Walter from the very beginning up to the top of the school.

FR. DÖRR.

(*To be concluded in our next.*)

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE fifty-eighth meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, March 23.

Present: Messrs. Milner-Barry (chair), Allpress, Brereton, Kirkman, Longsdon, Payen-Payne, Miss Partington, Messrs. Rippmann, Savory, Storr, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

Messrs. Somerville, Breul, Robertson, and Miss Batchelor wrote expressing regret for inability to attend.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Organization Sub-committee submitted a draft of the rules, revised in accordance with those of their recommendations which had been accepted by the Executive Committee. The following additions were made:

'1. Any resolution may be moved at a general meeting which has received the support of fifteen members signing their names thereto, and of which one month's notice has been given to the Hon. Secretary.

'2. Any alteration in or addition to the rules shall be submitted to a vote of the Association by means of voting-papers sent through the post, if a request for such a vote, signed by twenty members, is delivered to the Hon. Secretary within fourteen days after the general meeting at which the alteration or addition has been made.'

It was resolved that the revised rules should be submitted to a meeting of the General Committee, to be held on May 25.

A letter was read from an Education Secretary, asking for the opinion of the Association on the use of the phonograph in modern language teaching. After some discussion, it was resolved that he should be informed that the Committee could not undertake to express an opinion on an appliance which was still in the experimental stage. A member of the Committee, however, who had had experience in the matter, offered to communicate with the writer of the letter, and the offer was accepted with thanks.

A report from Mr. Brigstocke was read, giving an account of his visit to Paris at Christmas in connexion with the meeting at the Sorbonne.

The following new members were elected:

F. L. Armitage, M.A., Taylorian Lecturer in German, Oxford.

K. C. Auchmuty, M.A., Bede Collegiate School, Sunderland.

Miss E. D. Backhouse, B.A., Girls' Grammar School, Bradford, Yorks.

J. Booth, Thetford Grammar School, Norfolk.

Miss L. C. Brew, M.A., Godolphin and Latymer Girls' School, Hammersmith W.

T. A. Fish, M.A., Tiffin's Boys' School, Kingston-on-Thames.

H. T. Knowlton, Principal, Central Training College, Lahore, India.

Miss E. R. Lynch, Municipal High School, Doncaster.

Miss G. M. Mesnard, A.C.P., Bede Collegiate School, Sunderland.

S. A. Moor, M.A., Head Master, Grammar School, Nantwich, Cheshire.

L. J. Oberlé, B.A., Grammar School, Dartford, Kent.

Miss P. Sheavyn, M.A., D.Litt., Lecturer in English Literature, Somerville College, Oxford.

Miss M. C. Wise, Haberdashers' Girls' School, New Cross, S.E.

The Committee then adjourned.

The fifty-ninth meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, April 27, 1907.

Present: Messrs. Somerville (chair), Allpress, Brereton, Longsdon, Miss Morley, Mr. Payen-Payne, Miss Purdie, Messrs. Rippmann, Savory, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

Miss Batchelor and Mr. Kirkman wrote regretting inability to attend.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

It was resolved that the following additional new rules should be submitted to the General Committee on May 25:

'1. Members joining the Association after September 1 in any year shall pay a subscription of 5s. only for the remainder of that year, and shall be entitled to receive only such publications as are issued during that period.

'2. Members whose names have been removed from the members' list for non-payment of subscription shall be eligible for re-election only on payment of all arrears.'

It was resolved that in future members whose subscriptions are a year in arrears shall cease to receive the publications.

A special Sub-committee, consisting of the officers, together with Miss Bentinck-Smith, Messrs. Longsdon, Rippmann, Savory, Twentyman, and Miss Purdie, was appointed to consider the future work of the Association, and make recommendations, if possible, to the General Committee on May 25.

A letter was read from the Société d'Échange International des Enfants, asking for the assistance of the Association in finding English families willing to receive French children for long or short periods. It was resolved that the society should be informed that this could best be done by means of an article in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

A letter was read from Mr. Kirkman, stating that the Form of Inquiry into the conditions of modern language teaching in schools was being carefully examined by the members of the Sub-committee concerned. It was resolved that certain changes in the form be recommended to the General Committee on May 25, and that the form should go out with MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, as well as in other ways.

A letter was read from the President of Magdalen College, Oxford, suggesting that the Association might hold its general meeting at Oxford in December, 1908, or January, 1909. It was resolved that the Hon. Secretary should reply that the Committee heartily thanks the President for his letter, cordially approves of the proposal, and will submit it to the General Committee on May 25.

The following new members were elected:

E. E. Chottin, St. Lawrence College, Ramsgate.

Miss E. M. Donne, St. James's, Chichester.

D. Michael, New School, Abbotsholme.

Miss C. E. Spurgeon, Bedford College.

Miss Mildred White, Godolphin School, Salisbury.

G. Young, Hon. Sec., Polyglot Club, 3 and 4, Clement's Inn, Strand, W.C.

The Committee then adjourned.

OBITUARY.

HENRY CULLIMORE, M.A. Oxon., Professor of English Literature at the University of Fribourg, Switzerland, died on March 17, of heart failure following an operation, at the early age of twenty-eight. By his death the Modern Language Association loses a keen and active member. Besides numerous articles on literary and educational subjects which he contributed to various English and Continental journals, he published in 1905 *The Garden of Francesca*, a volume of verse, and at the time of his death was preparing for the press a book on English versification. It is with deep regret that we have to record the premature close of what bade fair to be a very promising career.

REVIEWS.

French Idioms and Proverbs. By DE V. PAYEN-PAYNE. (Nutt.) Pp. viii+268. Price 3s. 6d.

THERE is no need to praise this well-known book; but we take pleasure in recording the appearance of the fifth edition, revised and again somewhat enlarged. It is a delightful book to glance through. The comparison between French and English modes of thought and expression is fascinating, and throws much light on national character. The printing is clear and correct. We have noticed hardly any misprints. On p. 77 a hyphen has dropped out in *crève-cœur;* on p. 156 *wascht* should be *wäscht;* on p. 212 *ἄδον* is wrong; on p. 238 *Muttertreu'* should be printed as one word.

A Skeleton German Grammar, with German Exercises. By H. G. ATKINS. (Blackie.) Pp. viii+71+83. Price 2s.

We have here the third edition of this convenient Grammar, in which several alterations have been made, with the object of obtaining greater clearness, and two appendices have been added. With this is bound up the first edition of the German exercises, in which the selection of passages is to be commended. The passages for translation into German we frankly dislike, as they appear in a curious kind of English, of which the following sentences may serve as examples: 'When I him call, and we for-a-walk go, barks he with joy'; 'All those to whom he it shown has think that it the first prize win will.'

German Science Reader. Part I. By C. R. Dow. (Dent.) Pp. vii+85. Price 2s. 6d. net.

This is a volume in Dent's *Mathematical and Scientific Text-books for Schools*, and is divided into three sections, dealing respectively with *Mathematik*, *Experimental-Physik*, and *Chemie*. It is a good selection of suitable material. More care, however, should have been taken to ensure accuracy. Such slips as *an einer Kreis*, *das Grundsatz* (twice), *Stutzpunkt*, *Flussigkeit*, *im dem Verhältniss*, *die Widerstand*, and such antiquated spellings as *roth* and *Urtheil* should not have escaped the proof-reader.

A First Reader for those who are Beginning the Study of Esperanto. By E. A. LAWRENCE. (Stead.) Pp. 64. 6d. net.

We recommend this little reader, compiled by that earnest student and propagandist of Esperanto, Miss Lawrence. It contains some good short stories, poems, and Dr. Zamenhof's account of the 'Birth of Esperanto.' This artificial language is so easy and bids fair to become so widely

used that it will perhaps soon be a desirable, if not necessary, equipment for anyone who has an extensive correspondence with representatives of other nationalities. To the student of language the construction of Esperanto cannot fail to be of great interest.

Esperanto à l'Usage des Français. Par H. E. Palmer. (Wytteryck-Delplace, Bruges.) Pp. 167. Price 1 fr. 25 c.

This book deserves mention because it makes use of modern methods for the teaching of Esperanto to a class. We do not know whether any of our readers may be called upon to do so. If it is the case, they will derive benefit from a perusal of this well-printed book.

Three additions will be made shortly to the Oxford Higher French Series (which is intended for the general reader, as well as for the higher forms of public schools and for University students), viz.: Michelet's *La Mer*, edited by W. Robertson; Cousin's *La Société Française au XVIIème Siècle*, edited by M. Bentinck Smith; George Sand's *Jeanne*, edited by C. Hugon; and Stern's *Les Journées de Juin*, 1848, edited by C. N. Nagel. In the Oxford Modern French Series three new volumes are also announced: Balzac's *Le Colonel Chabert*, edited by H. W. Prescott; Michelet's *Louis XI. et Charles Le Téméraire*, edited by E. Renault; and *La Jeunesse de Napoléon* (extrait des Mémoires de Bourrienne), edited by M. A. Canivet. These volumes will make the total issue in the Modern French Series twenty-four volumes.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

St. Andrews University.—The Senatus Academicus has resolved to confer the honorary degree of LL.D. upon W. A. Craigie, Taylorian Lecturer in Scandinavian Languages, University of Oxford, and joint-editor of the *New English Dictionary*.

♣ ♣ ♣

Cambridge University. — It is with great interest that we have read the new scheme for the Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, which is as great an improvement on the second scheme as that was on the first. There will now be nine sections, the three new ones being devoted to Italian, Spanish, and Russian. Section D will now deal with old French and Provençal only. We welcome the change in the composition papers. Candidates will now be given three hours for writing an essay (in the foreign language) on some subject bearing on the literature, history, or institutions of the foreign country. There is to be one paper less on set books. Less space is given to grammar and more to literature in the 'modern' sections.

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Girton College, Cambridge. — The Sir Francis Goldsmid Scholarship (£50) has been awarded to M. L. Harvey, St. Leonard's School, St. Andrews (English and French). A College Scholarship of £30 has been awarded to E. V. Odom, Queen Elizabeth School, Mansfield (English and French); and a College Exhibition of £15 to C. Morrison, Manchester High School (German and French), bracketed equal.

♣ ♣ ♣

The late Mr. C. J. Oldham, Brighton, has left to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge £5,000 each, the income to be applied to founding one annual prize or scholarship in the ancient classics and one in knowledge of Shakespeare's works at each University.

♣ ♣ ♣

Edinburgh University. — We hear with pleasure from Dr. Schlapp, that friends of the German department of his University have subscribed £120 towards a Travelling Scholarship in German for Miss Ch. M. Maclean, who obtained the

medal in the German and French classes without having been abroad.

♣ ♣ ♣

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY. — The Senate have resolved to confer the honorary degree of LL.D. on Sidney Lee, Litt.D., and John McMillan Brown, formerly Professor of English, Canterbury College, Christchurch, New Zealand.

♣ ♣ ♣

LEEDS UNIVERSITY. — The Gilchrist Studentship in Modern Languages has been awarded to Miss Maude M. Edwards, B.A. The studentship is to be used by Miss Edwards in carrying on her studies in Paris, with a view to gaining the diplomas for foreigners issued by the International Guild and the University of Paris.

♣ ♣ ♣

In our March issue we quoted from the Duke of Devonshire's letter on the needs of Cambridge. Now Lord Curzon writes (*Times*, May 2) to appeal for assistance to OXFORD; and here, too, it is recognized that modern languages are at present not as generously provided for as should be the case in a great University:

'Among modern languages English should stand first at an English University. It is the language of the Empire, and Oxford, under the impulse given by the advent of the Rhodes scholars, may fairly be expected to take a leading part in the supply of teachers of our own language and literature to the younger Universities, to colleges, and to schools all over the world. But the professors of English are at present much overworked, and an increased staff of teachers is greatly to be desired.

'The claim of foreign languages and literature is hardly less imperative, more particularly if, as is probable, they are to furnish the element of humane study and culture in the education of those students —a growing number—who will seek in Oxford the scientific and modern training which will fit them for the varied requirements of the life of to-day. At present there is a deplorable lack of means for the public teaching of the languages and literature of modern Europe, and the creation of first-rate professorships in French and German language and literature in particular is urgently needed. A similar provision for other foreign languages will be the natural sequel.'

♣ ♣ ♣

We learn with pleasure from the *Oxford Gazette* that it is proposed to create a Chair of German, with a stipend of £500, at this University. It is high time.

♣ ♣ ♣

LADY MARGARET HALL, OXFORD.—A scholarship of £35 (English Literature) has been awarded to Marion Holt, Clapham High School.

♣ ♣ ♣

ST. HUGH'S HALL, OXFORD.—The Old Students' Scholarship of £30 has been awarded to Alison C. Dobbs, Wimbledon High School and 270, Boulevard Raspail, Paris (French); and a scholarship of £25 to Rose M. Wildy, Highbury and Islington High School (English Literature).

♣ ♣ ♣

SOMERVILLE COLLEGE, OXFORD.—The following elections to scholarships in modern languages have recently been announced: Miss L. A. Ruck, the Royal School for Officers' Daughters, Bath (Clothworkers' Scholarship); Miss M. S. Beard, Alexandra College, Dublin (College Scholarship). Commended: Miss L. Goodfellow, Blackheath High School.

♣ ♣ ♣

BELGRADE UNIVERSITY.—Mr. D. Low, M.A., St. Andrews, has been appointed Lektor in English.

♣ ♣ ♣

MARBURG UNIVERSITY. — We understand that the Lectorship in English is vacant. Here is a rare opportunity for one of our younger men. To be assistant to Professor Viëtor is no small privilege.

♣ ♣ ♣

Mr. E. L. MILNER BARRY, who has long been a valued member of our Association, recently sent in his resignation as assistant master and house master at Mill Hill School, after seventeen years' devoted work there, and although desired by the governors of the school to withdraw it, he

decided to give up schoolmastering for the present. At Easter he moved to Littledean, Berkhamsted, a very pleasant house in a fine position, and we wish that he may spend there many happy years. That he will continue to take keen interest in modern language work at our schools and Universities we may be certain.

At Mill Hill School Mr. Barry organized the whole of the French teaching. He found it a form subject; for this system he substituted that of three blocks of sets. He was also instrumental in abolishing French in the lowest form, which enabled a better grounding in Latin and in English subjects to be given. He recently introduced a French *Assistant*. For the highest set in German he was also responsible. His pupils were remarkably successful in the Certificate Examinations. Of the good work he did in the school in many other ways this is not the place to speak. All who were privileged to gain an insight into his sympathetic yet vigorous methods soon realized how admirably he was fitted to be a schoolmaster, and will regret that he should have given up the work when still a young man, while they will envy, but not grudge, him the leisure he may now enjoy.

Mr. Augustus Kahn has been appointed Head Master of the L.C.C. Camden Secondary School for Boys. He is one of our most able modern language teachers, and the work he has done in the Commercial Department of University College School has justly received high praise.

We congratulate M. Potel, of the *Lycée Voltaire*, on his appointment to the important post of *Inspecteur Général de l'Instruction publique pour les Langues vivantes*.

The German *Neuphilologen-Verband* is preparing to erect a monument to the distinguished Romance scholar, Diez. Subscriptions should be sent to Professor Breymann, Kaiserstrasse 36, Munich.

A letter on the subject of the 'Progress of Simplified Spelling' has been sent to several of our contemporaries by a Mr. H. Drummond. In the course of this letter he states that 'The Modern Language Association has decided to use them [the three hundred new spellings recommended by Mr. Roosevelt] in its publications.' It may be as well to point out that while this may be true of the Modern Language Association of America, it is certainly not true of our Association. Indeed, we are not a little surprised to hear that our American sister Association should lend its support to such an obviously ill-considered scheme, devoid of any underlying principle, as the President himself confessed in his letter to the official printers.

From the Annual Report of the London Chamber of Commerce we extract the following:

'As indicated in previous reports, the demand for young men with a good knowledge of foreign languages, especially French, German, and Spanish, still continues, and many positions which ought to be taken by Englishmen have, through their lack of linguistic ability, to be filled by foreigners.

M. Toni-Mathieu, *Directeur-Fondateur of the Société d'Échange* mentioned in another column, writes: 'Est-ce qu'il ne conviendrait pas à quelques-uns des membres de votre Société habitant au sud de Londres, de recevoir un jeune français de 14 ans comme *seul* pensionnaire de sa langue, pour 2 mois à partir du 15 juillet? Le prix serait de 25s. environ par semaine. Nous serions bien aises de recevoir des propositions avec prix et renseignements utiles.'

'A. E. I.' asks whether any of our readers can name the author of the following quotation: 'L'homme a voulu rêver; le rêve gouvernera l'homme.'

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, April, 1907: The Teaching of English in Schools which Study no Foreign Language (S. A. Robertson). May, 1907: The School Dramatic Club; The Function of Literature in the Formation of Character (G. Hodgson).

SCHOOL WORLD, April, 1907: On English Books (W. H. D. Rouse); Paraphrasing in Practice—II. (N. L. Frazer); The Direct Method of Teaching Modern Languages (L. von Glehn). May, 1907: Imitation or Phonetics in Modern Language Teaching (F. M. Vipan); Paraphrasing in Practice—III. (N. L. Frazer).

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, April, 1907: The Use of Myths with Children (G. R. Boone); The Commercial Value of a University Education (J. Spencer Hill). May, 1907: The Growth of Moral Ideas in Children (Professor Findlay).

SCHOOL, April, 1907: The English Association and Literature (W. J. Addis).

TEACHERS' GUILD QUARTERLY, March, 1907: The Functions of the Elementary, Higher Elementary, and Secondary Schools (M. Jackman, Professor Adamson).

LES LANGUES MODERNES, March, 1907: L'Œuvre Scolaire de l'Allemagne au XIX^e^ Siècle (H. Lichtenberger); La Phonétique et l'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes (G. Camerlynck).

OUTRE-MANCHE, April, 1907: La Vie à l'École de Sèvres (M. Clément).

NEUERE SPRACHEN, April, 1907: Französische Lektüre für die Mittelstufe der höheren Mädchenschule (A. Curtius).

BOLLETTINO DI FILOLOGIA MODERNA, February, 1907: Das Grammophon im Unterricht (V. A. Reko), March, 1907: Sulla trascrizione fonetica nell' insegnamento in classe (N. Morelli).

MODERNA SPRÅK, April, 1907: Freie Stilübung (E. Rohde).

EDITORIAL NOTE.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 1st of February, March, April, June and July, and the 15th of October, November and December. The price of single numbers is 6d.; the annual subscription is 4s. The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Modern Language Association who have paid their subscription (10s. 6d.) for the current year. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 45 (*not* 3), South Hill Park, London, N.W.; and subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45 (*not* 72), Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

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THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN GERMAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS (*concluded*).

THEN the reading and the text-books are discussed in our official regulations. Special stress is laid upon the necessity of selecting the texts to be read in class, so as to give the pupils an epitome of English literature since Shakespeare in its most characteristic types. Good modern prose, including specimens of eloquence, and suitable poetical works, should stand in the first rank. The pupils should get an insight into the history of culture and civilization, and into the most prominent features of the actual life of the people. Some technical text should not be omitted. The texts should be read and explained, but not used for long disquisitions on specialities and niceties of grammar or idiom, etc. Translation into the mother-tongue may only be dispensed with when the master has a good practical knowledge of the language, and when there is absolute certainty that the pupils are sufficiently advanced to understand the subject thoroughly when treated in the foreign tongue only.

What is required here appears to be beyond the grasp of schoolboys, however talented and advanced they may be. It is, indeed, a rare thing for a master to attain that state of proficiency which seems here to be considered within the reach of the average schoolboy. So we may take it for granted that it is an ideal only which is placed before our eyes, and that reality has to rest content with minor achievements. To arrive at satisfactory results that at all approximate to this ideal, we must select and graduate most carefully the texts to be read in class. This has not been done satisfactorily up to this day, and it is urgently needed that we should

make better progress in selecting and editing suitable texts. The Modern Language Teachers' Association in Germany twelve years ago appointed a committee for the special purpose of examining all the editions extant of French and English text-books, and reporting upon their value for use in class. They have with Herculean efforts gone through hundreds and hundreds of them, and published lists of those which seemed to fulfil all the requirements and of those that did not. But their efforts have met with very little success. Edited texts are still appearing in great numbers; and although the committee, with the approbation of the Modern Language Teachers' Association, have laid down rules which should be followed in the selection and editing of such texts, editors and publishers do not seem to care, but continue going on very much in the old way. I have quoted J. K. Jerome's *Three Men on the Bummel* as an instance of a modern text on a subject of very slight importance, and the editor of this book has not done his work in a very profound way either. It may be read and enjoyed in an idle hour on a half-holiday; but it certainly is not fit to be read at the rate of, at best, a page or two an hour, with explanatory notes and a running commentary by the master, with outlines, and summaries, and extracts, and all sorts of exercises on it. I don't think that Mr. Jerome's jokes —or, as a matter of fact, any other jokes—gain by being laboriously explained to German schoolboys who cannot at once see the joke, and find it a very poor thing when they do. It is quite as much an error on the other side, when some one brings out a collection of some of the very, very moral tales contained in *Sandford and Merton*, of ancient nursery reputation. Yet this has been done, too. It is a fact, a most regrettable fact, but still a fact, that most of us who teach foreign languages do not seem to be aware yet of the great, the paramount importance of selecting texts of real literary value, and suitable in substance and language to the capacity of our pupils. Not only should the texts be selected with a very careful consideration of these questions, but there are other considerations as well.

First of all we should begin with easy pieces on everyday life, and short stories, fairy tales, easy pieces of poetry, just such literature as would suit a child of a somewhat lower age in its own language. Then we should gradually go on selecting pieces that are a little more difficult, but still in simple language, and quite within easy reach of the intelligence of the pupils. After the pupils have made some progress in the foreign tongue, and have mastered a small but compact vocabulary of words and phrases denoting objects and ideas well within their natural sphere of interests, a second stage is reached, in which easy historical prose may be read, while the vocabulary acquired before should

be retained and enlarged by returning to the subject at regular intervals, and treating it in a slightly different way and from other points of view. At this stage, but not before, a second foreign language might be begun, if thought desirable. In the further progress of the study of the first, care should be taken that a pupil, before finishing his course of study, has read a small number of good texts, giving him an idea of the best modern literature of the foreign nation, and including a few works of the greatest authors of the classical period, which in French would mean Molière in the first place, Corneille and Racine in the second, La Fontaine, and perhaps a short selection of eighteenth-century authors; while in English Shakespeare would be essential. A selection made from such a point of view does not exist, and even when good books are published they are not always recognized as such and turned to account. I know for certain that *Le Roi des Montagnes* by About is extensively read in England, although it is not first-rate literature and the subject not at all France and French life; while *Das edle Blut* by Wildenbruch, which is a really good story of a certain phase of German life and most interesting to children, is hardly known or used. The question of what text-books should be read in school, what should be the principles of selection, and how they should be annotated and used in school, is one of the most important, and, as a matter of fact, *the* most important of all questions of Modern Language teaching. The attention of all of us should be continually given to it, and we ought not to rest before we have settled on a regular canon of texts, some of which are indispensable, while others may be recommended for choice. This could not be a thing fixed for ever, but should be subject to constant revision, as a living language ever and anon brings forth a new author and a new work worthy to be enrolled, while others gradually fall into oblivion. It is only stars of the first magnitude, like Shakespeare, Molière, Goethe, that shine with the same light for centuries. Modern Language teaching must be alive to the momentous importance of this question. We can never expect to be able to compete successfully with the classics, however great we may think the advantages which we enjoy, as long as we cannot conclusively prove that the literature with which we acquaint our pupils in Modern Language teaching can in every way compare with that of the ancients. That this can be done I have no doubt. I am fully convinced that French literature is in no way inferior to Latin, and that English does not stand behind Greek. On the other hand, the fact that they are living languages gives them an immeasurable superiority.

There is very little time left me to speak of grammar and exercises. Grammar is a theory which should

only be used as a means, not treated as an aim in itself. Children have no natural interest in grammar, and it should not be thrust upon them. It is quite sufficient that they learn what is absolutely necessary in the simplest form, and as a help only to understanding their reading, or as a corrective against mistakes that are liable to be made. As they grow older and begin to reflect and investigate, they ought to be encouraged to put questions and assisted in answering them, and in the end a synopsis of grammar, a brief outline may be sketched, to be filled in when occasion offers itself. But grammar should always be the servant, not the master. Other theory, like the study of synonyms, of prosody, of style and diction, should only come in when the reading requires it, but should not be treated systematically. We must never lose out of sight the first and essential object of the study of a living language—viz., that we should be able to speak and read and write it as a means of ready communication, for every manner of intercourse required between the great nations of the present day. It is from this point of view, too, that we ought to treat all written work in school. Grammatical exercises become necessary when we want to make the pupils conversant with the inflexions and the indispensable rules of syntax. They need not be translations. As a matter of fact, changes of number, tense, and mood; transforming a story by having it told of two persons instead of one, related by somebody who took part in it, instead of by the author; giving it in the present instead of in the past; introducing narrative where there was conversation, and conversation where there was narrative; reducing it to the smallest possible compass by stating the main facts only, or amplifying it where it was short and concise; selecting from it a number of passages that serve to illustrate a rule of grammar, and moulding these into the form best suited for the purpose — these and similar exercises may prove so fruitful that translations can in most cases be dispensed with. They may only occasionally come in as a test, least of all in the early stages, where they are very dangerous for young and inexperienced minds, but with better results later on, when a wish arises to find out by comparison where the foreign languages and our mother-tongue are similar, and what are the differences. But there is always the danger of too much speculation coming in, and of the mother-tongue being too extensively used, whereas we should do all we can to give the short hours allotted to the study of the foreign language exclusively to practising it in every possible way. This is the reason, too, why we should all through our course of study insist on our pupils speaking the foreign language, and why we should always speak it ourselves, unless we are positively certain that there is no other way of conveying the

meaning left but by means of the mother-tongue.

I have almost exhausted my subject—that is, as far as it is possible within the limits of one short lecture. But I have to say a few more words on the course prescribed for English in schools other than the Prussian *Realgymnasien*. The official regulations make hardly any difference between the *Realgymnasien* and the *Oberrealschulen*. There are at present no such schools in Bavaria and Saxony, but they will soon be introduced there too. They give more time to French and English than do the *Realgymnasien*, and so are able to lay a more solid foundation, and especially to make reading and conversation more extensive and varied. This advantage, however, is in a measure counterbalanced by the fact that most of the boys who frequent these schools come from a lower social stratum and enjoy fewer advantages at home, so that their command of German in particular is inferior, and their progress in foreign languages naturally slower. The *Realschulen* are essentially like the *Oberrealschulen*, without the last three years of study, many of the boys at the age of fifteen or sixteen entering upon a practical career, and the rest finishing their studies at an *Oberrealschule* in most cases. Some go on to a commercial high school, where English, like French, is taught for business purposes mainly. The *Höhere Mädchenschulen* (High Schools for Girls) have fewer hours for French and English, and more for German. They generally obtain very good results, as the girls are naturally quicker of perception than many boys, and also quicker with their tongues, and as they are in many cases very conscientious and painstaking, all the more so when they know that they will have to turn the knowledge they acquire to practical account afterwards. This, unluckily, is not always the case. A boy in Germany generally knows that he will have to work, and to work hard, as he grows up. Girls sometimes don't, and so fail to make proper use of their natural abilities.

It would have been an interesting and amusing study if I had been able to tell you a little of English grammars, reading-books, text-books, etc., as they were once used in Germany. The English which some of them used to teach was far from being either educated southern or northern English, but very often of the author's own invention—some kind of 'English as she is spoke.' It is no longer so. But even now an Englishman may occasionally smile a sad and pensive smile when he sees to what use his mother-tongue has been put by an ingenious grammarian, whose valour has been greater than his discretion. Then I should have liked to explain to you at greater length how the *Realgymnasien* at Frankfort have come to adopt a different plan in the order of foreign languages, and to begin with French, which they teach for three years, with very good results, before they

go on to Latin, while English is only entered upon two years afterwards. This means that here the boys are between fourteen to sixteen years of age, while in other schools they are twelve or thirteen. They have, then, six periods a week, and in one year succeed in going essentially over the same ground which it takes younger boys with shorter hours to cover in three years. There are some difficulties in pronunciation to be overcome, which generally do not present themselves with younger boys, whose organs of speech are more flexible; but they are soon mastered in most cases, and progress is much faster afterwards, as the boys know what they are about, and work with a will. I strongly recommend to you to read Dir. Walter's book, *Englisch in Sekunda nach dem Reform-Lehrplan*, which gives an excellent account of the work done at his school in this direction. It shows at the same time how the reform method can with the greatest advantage be employed in this case; while some other accounts, especially Professor Klinghardt's *Ein Jahr* and *drei Jahre Erfahrungen*, prove the value of this method for younger pupils. It is generally granted in our country that it is easier to teach English on the reform method than French. I rather think it easier to teach English than French on any method, in its initial stages, at least; it is not so afterwards. But as the elements are easier, I agree with Professor Viëtor and a few other educationalists in our country that English should be the first foreign language to be taught in school, on the principle that what is easiest should come first. Historically, English has been the last foreign language that has been introduced into our secondary school system; but its value has been recognized more and more freely, and it has had more and more room given to it, particularly in our latest programme. There is very little doubt that in future English will hold the first rank in the study of all foreign languages, and this study is sure to secure in Germany a better understanding and a higher appreciation of this country, of its history and culture, of its present life and institutions, of its great authors and eminent men and women, and of all that they have done for the progress of the human race.

FR. DÖRR.

ALFRED DE MUSSET.

IN 1830, when Victor Hugo, encouraged by his band of enthusiasts, was producing *Hernani*, Alfred de Musset, then a young man of twenty, published his first poems. These included *Don Paez*, *Les Marrons du Feu*, *Portia*, *Mandoche*, and *Le Saule*. *Don Paez* is the story of a jealous lover who, on finding that he has a rival, kills him, and then proceeds to poison his mistress and himself. The description of the duel between Paez and Etur contains one of Musset's best similes:

'Comme on voit dans l'été, sur les herbes fauchées,
Deux louves, remuant les feuilles desséchées,
S'arrêter face à face et se montrer la dent;
La rage les excite au combat; cependant
Elles tournent en rond lentement et s'attendent
Leurs mufles amaigris l'un vers l'autre se tendent.
Tels, et se renvoyant de plus sombres regards,
Les deux rivaux, penchés sur le bord des remparts
S'observent — par instants entre leur mains rapides
S'allume sous l'acier un éclair homicide, . . .'

The short comedy of *Les Marrons du Feu* was criticized by the romanticists for its want of local colour. It seems as though Musset had wished to parody Racine's *Andromaque*, and to caricature the unfortunate Orestes in the person of the Abbé Annibal Desiderio, who is ordered by La Camargo, whom he adores, to kill her lover Rafael. Just as Hermione afterwards reviles Orestes for obeying her commands, so does La Camargo revile Annibal.

Portia illustrates the pet theory of the romanticists that the basest actions are justified by passion. This lady, the wife of a Venetian Count, is beloved by Dalti, a gondolier. The lover kills the husband, and elopes with Portia in his gondola, his sole earthly possession. Portia, being young and romantic, is perfectly happy, and remains unmoved by Dalti's confession of his poverty.

Mandoche and *Le Saule* form a striking contrast, but both are typical of the romantic spirit. One is struck by the Byronic tone of the former. Its hero, Mandoche, has all the cynical effrontery of Don Juan:

'C'était du reste un esprit fort;
Il eût fait volontiers d'une tête de mort
Un falot, et mangé sa soupe dans le crâne
De sa grand'mère. Au fond, il estimait qu'un âne,
Pour Dieu qui nous voit tous, est autant qu'un ânier.
Peut-être que, n'ayant pour se désennuyer
Qu'un livre (c'est le cœur humain que je veux dire)
Il avait su trop tôt et trop avant y lire; . . .'

On the other hand, in *Le Saule*, Musset has given way to extravagant sentimentality. The heroine is a professional singer, an American aged sixteen, answering to the prosaic name of Georgina Smolen. Like many romanticist heroines, Miss Smolen is possessed by a mysterious sadness. She is loved by a young Oxonian, named Tiburce, who leads a melancholy, hermit-like existence in his ancestral manor. Except for his poverty, there seems to be no reason why these young people should not have united their sorrows in matrimony. After all, there was the ancestral manor, which Tiburce had turned into a laboratory. But it has seemed good to Musset to drag us through nine cantos of misery. Eventually Georgina expires in an American convent, with Tiburce in attendance at her death-bed. He, not to be outdone by her in suffering, dies on the boat which is taking him home.

Such was Musset's first volume—the poems of a very young man who is feeling his way; the work of an admirer of Byron with distinct leanings towards romanticism. In almost every case the plot is ill-constructed, the characters exaggerated, and moral feeling totally absent. But his individuality was soon to assert itself. As early as 1832, in the dedication to *La Coupe et les Lèvres*, he repudiates any party feeling, either literary or political:

'On m'a dit l'an passé que j'imitais Byron;
Vous mi me connaissez, vous savez bien que non.
Je hais comme le mort l'état de plagiaire;
Mon verre n'est pas grand, mais je bois dans mon verre.
C'est bien peu, je le sais, que d'être homme de bien,
Mais toujours est-il vrai que je n'exhume rien.
Je ne me suis pas fait écrivain politique,
N'étant pas amoureux de la place publique.

D'ailleurs, il n'entre pas dans mes prétentions,
D'être l'homme du siècle et de ses passions.
* * * *
Je n'ai jamais chanté ni la paix ni la guerre ;
Si mon siècle se trompe, il ne m'importe guère ;
* * * *
Vous me demandez si j'aime ma patrie.
Oui :— j'aime aussi l'Espagne et la Turquie.
Je ne hais pas la Perse, et je crois les Indous
De très honnêtes gens, qui boivent comme nous ;
Mais je hais les cités, les pavés et les bornes,
Tout ce qui porte l'homme à se mettre en troupeau. . . .'

It is his spirit of independence, of unconventionality and freedom, which endears our poet to English readers. His indifference prevented Musset from falling into the extremes of party hatred and rhetorical bombast which inflamed Victor Hugo, and which lessen the permanent value of, for example, *Les Châtiments*.

As for *La Coupe et les Lèvres*, the play itself is inferior to the dedication. The scene is laid in the Tyrol ; this time Musset had culled the requisite local colour from the pages of an ancient geographical dictionary. Frank, the hero, is a libertine, who, after a life of debauchery, finally returns to his first love. But, shortly before the wedding was to have taken place, Déidamia, his beloved, expires in his arms. The poet's meaning is obscure, and, despite his avowal in the dedication, Frank is a distinctly Byronic character.

More original is the comedy, *A quoi Rêvent les Jeunes Filles?* The young girls in question, Ninon and Ninette, are the twin daughters of the Duke Laertes, a most exceptional father, who, to supply his daughters with the element of romance for which all women are supposed to languish, serenades them in the name of Silvio. Compared with Laertes, the lovers, Silvio and Irun, are tame and uninteresting. The girls themselves illustrate Musset's wonderful insight into the character of women. The gallery of his female characters is extensive and varied. In his comedies he depicts now a staid and sensible wife (Barberine), now a convent-bred miss who has been taught to despise love (Camille), now a romantic princess (Elsbeth) ; or, again, a woman of the world, such as la Marquise in *Il faut qu'une porte soit ouverte ou fermée*. The charm, the obstinacy, and the capriciousness of the heart of woman is all an open secret to Musset, and the reader wonders whence he derived his marvellous knowledge. Surely not from the self-absorbed and unconventional George Sand ?

A quoi Rêvent les Jeunes Filles? was followed by *Namouna* (December, 1832). This poem is undoubtedly inspired by Byron's *Don Juan*. Namouna is a Spanish slave, who for a short time is an inmate of the harem of Hassan, a sensual Eastern potentate. The slave falls in love with her brutal master, and, after her dismissal from the harem, vainly tries to gain readmission in disguise. Such is the story told in the third canto of the poem. The first contains the description of Hassan, a repulsive creature in whom Musset seems unduly interested. In the second he treats of the typical Don Juan. According to Musset, the best species of libertine is unfaithful, because in love he seeks the ideal, and therefore deserts one woman after another in the quest of the unattainable :

'Demandant aux forêts, à la mer, à la plaine,
Aux brises du matin, à toute heure, à tout lieu,
La femme de ton âme et de ton premier vœu !
Prenant pour fiancée un rêve, une ombre vaine,
Et fouillant, dans le cœur d'une hécatombe humaine,
Prêtre désespéré, pour y chercher ton Dieu.'

He traverses many cities, and devotes his whole life to the quest. At last this unsatisfactory existence draws to a close :

'Tu mourus plein d'espoir dans ta route infinie,
Et, te souciant peu de laisser ici-bas
Des larmes et du sang aux traces de tes pas

Plus vaste que le ciel, et plus grand que la vie,
Tu perdis ta beauté, ta gloire et ton génie
Pour un être impossible, et qui n'existait pas.'

Such was Musset himself ; there ran through all his life and works that vein of idealism and unfulfilled longing which makes for sadness and contemplation, as opposed to happiness and action. But such was not the Hassan of Namouna, and it is strange that so sensual a brute could have attracted the dreamy idealist.

But the cynical flippancy of *Mandoche* and of the first canto of *Namouna* was but a passing phase, and in the following year (1833) our poet received a stern awakening. Although George Sand broke Musset's heart and caused him to waste the best years of his life, it is to her inspiration that we owe the *Nuits* and the *Lettre à Lamartine*. He met her for the first time in the summer of 1833, at a dinner given in connexion with the *Revue des deux Mondes*. The friendship progressed rapidly. I do not propose to dwell on it in detail, but would refer those who wish to investigate this pitiful story to Musset's *Confession d'un Enfant du Siècle*, in which Brigitte represents George Sand. Suffice it to say that in December, 1833, the two started together for Italy. The climate does not seem to have agreed with either of them ; during the early part of 1834 first George Sand and afterwards Musset became very ill. The poet's life was saved by an Italian doctor, Pagello ; but it was through Pagello that Musset lost the love of George Sand. She was six years older than he, and her love for him had been that of a mother rather than of a mistress. Pagello, in his turn, fell under her spell, and she found in him the maturity which Musset lacked. It was decided that, for the good of his health and of his peace of mind, Musset should return to France. Accordingly, in April, 1834, he left Italy for Paris, where he endeavoured to drown in dissipation the memory of his lost love. He continued to correspond with George Sand, who was still in Italy with Pagello. In the summer of that year (1834) she returned to Paris, bringing with her the Italian. Pagello does not seem to have appreciated France, and by this time the glamour of his affection for George Sand had worn away. Musset had gone to Eastern France, where George Sand besieged him with passionate letters. In the autumn Pagello returned to Italy and Musset to George Sand. But it was passion, not love, which drew them together, for their letters tell of frequent quarrels and much unhappiness. Musset was one of those whose suffering is greater than their love. In November, 1834, his passion began to weaken, at first fitfully—for in January, 1835, he and George Sand were again together—later with increasing steadiness. But they still corresponded, and the *Confessions d'un Enfant du Siècle* appeared in 1836. They met for the last time in 1848.

To return to the poems. In August, 1833, at the outset of his friendship with George Sand, Musset had published *Rolla*, which forms, as it were, a link between his early and his later work. *Rolla* is romantic, but there runs through it a note of stern vehemence, which the poems of his early youth had lacked. The hero is a Don Juan of good family, who at twenty-two, having wasted a large fortune in debauchery, finds himself confronted by ruin. A disciple of Voltaire, he has always gratified the passion of the moment, and drained the wine of life to the dregs. For Rolla Musset has only pity ; and this is interesting when we recall the almost reverent affection with which he had regarded Hassan :

'Si Dieu nous a tirés tous de la même fange,
Certes il a dû pétrir dans une argile étrange,
Et sécher aux rayons d'un soleil irrité,
Cet être, quel qu'il soit, ou l'aigle ou l'hirondelle,
Qui ne saurait plier ni son cou ni son aile,
Et qui n'a pour tout bien qu'un mot—la liberté.'

On the day of Rolla's death, when he is about to take poison, love, which had

hitherto ignored him, comes to Rolla unsought, unbidden. He loves Marie, the child with whom he had spent his last hours, and she in return loves him, and with pathetic innocence offers to sell her one possession—a gold necklace—so that Rolla may pay his debts :

'Mais j'ai mon collier d'or, veux-tu que je le vende ?
Tu prendras ce qu'il vaut, et tu l'iras jouer.
Rolla lui répondit par un triste sourire.
Il prit un flacon noir qu'il vida sans rien dire ;
Puis, se penchant sur elle, il baisa son collier.
Quand elle souleva sa tête appesantie,
Ce n'était plus qu'un être inanimé ;
Dans ce chaste baiser son âme était partie,
Et pendant un moment, tous deux avaient aimé.'

Thus died Rolla, and with him the youth of Musset. Such insight into the pathetic side of working-class life was at that time practically non-existent in French literature. It remained for François Coppée and Sully Prudhomme to turn it to advantage some fifty years later.

Between 1835 and 1841, after his return from Italy, Musset wrote the *Nuits*, the *Lettre à Lamartine*, the *Espoir en Dieu*, and the *Souvenir*. The characteristic note of these poems is sadness—sadness which has degenerated into inertia and resignation. The *Nuits* are dialogues between the poet and the muse, in which she exhorts him to put aside his sorrow and rouse himself. She comes to him first in the spring (*La Nuit de Mai*), and beseeches him to write a poem, to travel—in a word, to forget :

'Poète, prends ton luth et me donne un baiser ;
La fleur de l'églantier sent ses bourgeons éclore.
Le printemps naît ce soir . . .
Éveillons au hasard les échos de ta vie,
Parlons-nous de bonheur, de gloire, et de folie,
Et que ce soit un rêve et le premier venu.
Inventons quelque part des lieux où l'on oublie.'

* * * *

She tells him how the best songs are those which are born of suffering : how the pelican, who has vainly sought for food for his little ones, must perforce nourish them with his heart's blood :

'L'océan était vide et la plage déserte ;
Pour toute nourriture il apporte son cœur.'

She presses the poet to do likewise, and to lay before the starving public the story of his pain. But he tells her that his grief is too deep for words ; that the expression of it would shatter his lyre.' In *La Nuit de Décembre* Musset writes of the consolation of solitude, and in *La Nuit d'Août* of religion :

'A qui perd tout, Dieu reste encore,
Dieu là-haut, l'espoir ici-bas.'

The last of the series, *La Nuit d'Octobre*, is more peaceful in character, but towards the end Musset breaks forth into violent denunciation of woman and of love :

'Honte à toi, femme à l'œil sombre,
Dont les funestes amours
Ont enseveli dans l'ombre
Mon printemps et mes beaux jours !
C'est ta voix, c'est ton sourire,
C'est ton regard corrupteur,
Qui m'ont appris à maudire
Jusqu'au semblant du bonheur.'

The *Lettre à Lamartine* (1836), albeit no less passionate in parts, shows a distinct religious tendency. The poet has realized that the pangs of love, despite their bitterness, are no more permanent than the perishable mortal who inspired them. They will pass, but the soul, which is eternal, will survive all its sorrows :

'Créature d'un jour, qui t'agites une heure,
De quoi viens-tu te plaindre, et qui te fait gémir ?
Ton âme t'inquiète, et tu crois qu'elle pleure ;
Ton âme est immortelle, et tes pleurs vont tarir.'

In the *Espoir en Dieu* (1838) Musset shows that material joys are essentially unsatisfying. Man, appalled by the vastness of infinity, hungers for something more, he knows not what :

'Malgré moi, l'infini me tourmente.
Je n'y saurais songer sans crainte et sans espoir ;

Et, quoi qu'on en ait dit, ma raison s'épouvante
De ne pas le comprendre, et pourtant de le voir.'

But, on the other hand, orthodox Christianity robs life of its charm, teaching that pleasure is sinful, and that happiness must be sought in another world. Midway between the Atheist and the Christian Musset stands bewildered:

'Que me reste-t-il donc? Ma raison révoltée
Essaye en vain de croire, et mon cœur de douter.
Le chrétien m'épouvante, et ce que dit l'athée,
En dépit de mes sens, je ne puis l'écouter.
* * * *
A qui m'adresserai-je, et quelle voix amie
Consolera ce cœur que le doute a blessé?'

Neither is there any comfort to be found in philosophy:

'Je vois rêver Platon et penser Aristote;
J'écoute, j'applaudis, et poursuis mon chemin.
* * * *
Pascal fuit en tremblant ses propres visions.
Pyrrhon me rend aveugle et Zénon insensible.
Voltaire jette à bas tout ce qu'il voit debout.
Spinosa, fatigué de tenter l'impossible,
Cherchant en vain son Dieu, croit le trouver partout.'

As a last resource Musset turns to prayer:

'Croyez-moi, la prière est un cri d'espérance!
Pour que Dieu nous réponde, adressons-nous à lui.'

The poem ends with a prayer that God will reveal Himself more fully to man.

The *Souvenir* (1841) breathes a deeper note of resignation. Musset has revisited the place sacred to him by the memory of George Sand, and asks himself why this pilgrimage has left him so unmoved:

'Que sont-ils devenus, les chagrins de ma vie?
Tout ce qui m'a fait vieux est bien loin maintenant;
Et rien qu'en regardant cette vallée amie,
Je redeviens enfant.
* * * *
O puissance du temps! ô légères années!
Vous emportez nos pleurs, nos cris, et nos regrets;
Mais la pitié vous prend, et sur nos fleurs fanées
Vous ne marchez jamais.
Tout mon cœur te bénit, bonté consolatrice!
Je n'aurais jamais cru que l'on pût tant souffrir
D'une blessure, et que sa cicatrice
Fût si douce à sentir.'

Earthly love is as subject to change as the natural phenomena which form its setting—such are the sky, the flowers, and the wind. Nevertheless, it leaves behind it a lasting remembrance, and it is this remembrance that Musset will bear with him to eternity:

'Je me dis seulement:
"A cette heure, en ce lieu, un jour,
Je fus aimé, j'aimais, elle était belle.
J'enfouis ce trésor dans mon âme immortelle,
Et je l'emporte à Dieu!"'

From 1840 onwards Musset's health began to fail, and in 1857 he died.

The period of his poetical activity extends over little more than ten years (1829-1841). His poems are thus the work of a young man, and illustrate the development of his character. The passionate, sentimental, cynical, romantic poet of *Don Paez*, *Le Saule*, *Namouna*, *La Coupe et les Lèvres*, gradually, under the humanizing influence of love, becomes sober, sincere, self-controlled, in harmony with Nature and with God (*Les Nuits*, *La Lettre à Lamartine*, *L'Espoir en Dieu*, *Le Souvenir*). In early youth, like all of us, Musset had set out to conquer the world, although fully convinced that the world was not worth conquering. In several of the early poems, and notably in *Mardoche* and *Namouna*, the reader is led to expect a wider issue. But the poems end suddenly, abruptly, without any apparent reason.

This abruptness suggests an analogy with Musset's own career, so rudely disturbed—one might almost say dislocated—by the influence of George Sand. But, though a mere ghost of his former self,

Musset did at length emerge from his struggle with passion, which left him calmer, purer, and nobler, with yet sufficient strength to write some of the best poems in the French language. Perhaps Musset has never been fully appreciated by the French, but the English reader cannot fail to love him for the following qualities:

1. His unconventionality and lack of party feeling. Musset hated plagiarism in literature, politics, or religion. Although in his youth he was unconsciously swayed by the romanticists, he would accept none of their theories at second-hand. Thus, he refused to follow their rhythmical innovations, openly vaunting his own *rimes pauvres* at a time when it was fashionable to make *rimes riches*.

2. His sympathy, shown by his insight into the character of women and into the lives of the poor (*À quoi Rêvent les Jeunes Filles? Rolla*).

3. His idealism, or, in other words, the dissatisfaction with things terrestrial, which runs through *Namouna*, *Rolla*, and *Les Nuits*, culminating in the metaphysical questionings of *L'Espoir en Dieu*.

4. His sincerity, of which the *Lettre à Lamartine* affords a striking instance. To this sincerity is due the simplicity and straightforwardness of his style. It was, moreover, sincerity which led him to describe what he had himself experienced.

5. His unconscious imitation of, and notable resemblance to, Byron.

To conclude, Musset belongs to the school of naturalists rather than to the romanticists. He describes in detail and with accuracy what he himself has felt. But he lacks the impersonal observation of the naturalists, and by reason of his subjectivity, or what Brunetière would call 'his lyricism,' he may be classed with Rousseau and Chateaubriand.

A. R. Hutchinson.

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

THE RIGHT PLACE OF TRANSLATION.

We welcome a contribution from the Hon. Secretary of the French Modern Language Association. M. Garnier's account of the progress of the reform in France is particularly interesting because it describes the working of a system so entirely different from our own. In the French schools the reform has been engineered by the Education Department, and imposed on all schools alike. There is uniformity in organization and in the broad lines of method, but the uniformity is subject to modification by experience, and the experience gained at each step is carefully watched. On this side of the Channel we have confusion both in organization and method. One school is 'reformed'; another is still using Chardenal. Even in the same school a pupil may be subjected to a kaleidoscopic variety of methods. We are, as usual, muddling through to nowhere in particular sustained by the conviction that we shall get out somewhere sometime. When we think we have got there, we shall easily convince ourselves that we have, after all, muddled through all right owing to that monopoly of 'practical' genius that renders us so superior to other nations.

All contributions to this column should be sent within ten days of the issue of this number, and the sooner the better, to Mr. F. B. Kirkman, 19, Dartmouth Park Hill, London, N.W.

IX.

M. Ch. M. Garnier
(*Lycée Henri IV., Paris*).

The question as it was at first put by Mr. Latham, *Shall we abandon translation?* reminded me of a misconception which for a time prevailed in French educational circles. As the use of the mother-tongue had been banished from the lower modern (foreign) language classes,

most teachers ran to the extreme, not of their hope but of their dread, and looked upon translation as dead and buried. A public utterance of an Inspector-General, M. Firmery, at the annual assembly of our society (November, 1905) was necessary to set things in their true light. 'I go further than M. Potel,' he said, 'who simply requests that translation *may* be made one of the class exercises; I require that translation *should* be made one, within limits yet to be debated and settled, and I refer exclusively to translation from French into the foreign language. I shall be glad of any contribution to the study of this point from your society.'

Our society has not since taken the matter into formal consideration. Not out of disregard for a courteous request, but out of a growing diffidence in sheer theorizing. Moreover, other problems pressed on us, and in course of time the question was bound to crop up again.

A glance at the dates of the reform movement in France will make the point clear. It was started and set working in our secondary schools in October, 1902, with the sixth form, the beginners' class with us, in which oral instruction predominates.

In October, 1904, boys trained solely by the new method came up to the second stage, constituted by the fourth and third forms, in which the problem of *reading* the foreign language is especially dealt with; and only at the last *rentrée*, October, 1906, did our 'reform' boys reach the second form, that is, the beginning of the highest stage, in which the question which faces them and ourselves is how to *write* the foreign tongue.

By the very wording of the task set before us, also by the necessities of the final examination, viz., a composition in the foreign language, the matter, and to a great extent the manner, of the teaching is marked off and settled. The possibility of wholesale translation is at once precluded. There remains limited translation, which falls under three heads: (1) translation into the foreign language (thème); (2) translation into French, (*a*) in collective cursory reading, oral work; (*b*) as written work.

1. Must the first kind, 'le thème,' be condemned ruthlessly, without appeal? I, for one, do not see the necessity. In this case, 'translating' is writing in the foreign language under grammatical and literary restraints, the absence of which our boys' somewhat long, loose, incorrect essays too often give us cause to regret. But the examination test claiming its victim, and time being short (three hours a week), we can hardly expect to use this way of translating more than once or twice a term, and only for grammatical purposes.

2. (*a*) Translation into French resorted to in class in the course of reading: Generally in these forms we take two reading books. One is a general 'reader,' with social topics, history, poetry; the other a work of high literary value, whether an established classic or a contemporary author. Both are read, construed, and commented upon in the foreign tongue. As a rule, with the first book, the 'reader,' it is strictly so, and amply sufficient. With the other it is not. With Shakespeare or Tennyson, Kipling or Pinero, even when the words are clear, there are shades of meaning, intricacies of thought or feeling, which, to the average boy of sixteen, would even be difficult to understand in their mother-tongue. In most cases, it would not be impossible to clear up the passage in the foreign tongue, but it would take too much time and unduly tax the attention of the many without sufficient benefit to the few. Here translation comes in, as a quickening process, as a controlling device, but also and mostly as the means to keep wide awake the conscience of the boy, and make him keenly alive to the full force of the subtle beauty of literary constructions which might escape his notice in his striving after new words, fresh idioms, or fragmentary phrases.

(*b*) Translation into the mother-tongue as a distinct written exercise: Here lies the gist of the question. By the end of

this school year only shall we be able to collect information as to what has actually been done in the second form, now for the first time, under full 'reform' sway. For the present I can only speak for myself. From my friends and my own experience, I gather that translation can no longer take rank as a class exercise set at regular intervals like the essay. If regular and frequent, say once a fortnight, it might turn the students' mind from their present aim—that is, writing the foreign language—and root out habits of thinking in the foreign tongue, which it has taken so long and been so hard to implant. It might interest pupils used to translating from Greek and Latin. As for the others, they would either treat it too lightly or take to it too earnestly. In the former case, translation would be useless; in the latter, it would engross the boys' attention, and exact from them efforts quite out of proportion to the aim in view.

On the contrary, in the occasional use of written translation, I can see but advantages. It is an element of variety. It can reconcile the 'classical' boys to a modern language they are sometimes inclined to think too lightly of in point of difficulty. On the other hand, it proves an incentive in the case of the pupils who, owing to some flaw in their oral (and aural) training, fail to leave their mark on the ordinary class work. Lastly, it can help both groups of boys to get a clearer and more precise insight into the nature of the two languages under consideration, thanks to a close comparison which, at this late stage, cannot have the same drawbacks as in the earlier stages of the work.

Such is the place ascribed to translation in the reform teaching of French schools. That it can be only limited translation is quite clear. What those limits will be practice has not yet declared. Those I have ventured to define are purely tentative. Before long we shall know the result of this year's experience, collect facts, and draw conclusions: it will be part of the debate now started on *l'enseignement littéraire dans les classes du deuxième cycle*. We shall be glad to take into account the results brought to light by the question now at issue in your columns.

X.

Mr. M. P. Andrews

(Elizabeth College, Guernsey).

We have two questions before us:

1. *The place in modern language teaching of translation from the foreign language into the mother-tongue.*

2. *The place of the reverse process.*

I believe translation from the foreign into the mother-tongue to be useful as—

1. *An occasional aid to comprehension* (one which should be very sparingly used).

2. *An occasional test of comprehension and power to interpret.*

3. *An occasional exercise in the use of the mother-tongue* (differing but little from the paraphrasing of English: given a thought, clothe it in other words).

4. *An occasional exercise in the comparison of grammar, construction, and idiom.*

I am inclined to think that the same standard of translation from the foreign into the mother-tongue as that at present obtaining in our schools could be attained in a few weeks, following on systematic direct method teaching, instead of in a few years.

The normal boy, trained from the outset on direct method lines, who has with the master's aid threshed out a piece of reading material by question and answer, by paraphrasing, by synonym hunting, by oral reproduction of its contents, can hardly fail to be in a position to translate the piece. If his English teaching is adequate, if he reads plenty of good English authors, and if he has plenty of exercise in paraphrasing, in oral and written reproduction, and in original English composition, his translation will be relatively strong; if the English teaching is insufficient in quality and quantity, relatively weak.

The time thus devoted to the discussion in the foreign tongue of reading material is all clear gain for the purposes of writing (be it free compositions or prose translations) and for the understanding of further reading material. In connexion with the use of the mother-tongue as an occasional aid to comprehension, I should like to refer to a passage in Mr. Milner-Barry's article. He says his 'view would be—when such a method is practicable—to utilize the reform movement for the first two or three years' instruction in a modern language, allowing the teacher free scope in the use of the mother-tongue.' The essence of that part of the reform movement to which, as I take it, Mr. Milner-Barry refers is the earliest possible establishment of a direct association. A good many direct methodists will wish to know how this is possible, if the teacher is to have no hesitation in using the mother-tongue.

And, again, if it be found difficult to make clear, as Mr. Crofts implies, to the average normal boy, without recourse to English, sentences containing such expressions as *beaucoup* and *il y a*, or sentences illustrating the difference between *ont* and *sont*, is one not tempted to believe that the direct methods are often decried after a very half-hearted trial?

I hold *translation from English into the foreign tongue* to be an exercise of the utmost difficulty, and one of but little practical value. The power really to write good translations from the mother-tongue into the foreign language is a comparatively rare accomplishment. Probably not one boy in a hundred will require it as a part of his intellectual equipment for after-life. It is said to be a good 'mental gymnastic.' Walking on one's hands is a good physical gymnastic!

Yet perhaps a fourth of the precious time devoted to Modern Language teaching in English schools is spent on this 'mental gymnastic'—time that might be spent on the study of the literature, the history, the customs of the foreign nation, upon the writing of free compositions, upon acquiring the power to speak, and in the learning by heart of extracts from the foreign language. I would advocate that the translation of continuous prose pieces should only be attempted in Form VI.—that is to say, after many years' soaking in French. Personally, I am inclined to think that translation from the mother-tongue into the foreign language should only be set in examinations as an alternative to free composition, and that it should only be *demanded* of pupils desirous of distinctions.

We have aimed too high in the past, and have fallen lamentably below our mark; let us rather aim a little lower, and strike considerably higher. Perhaps we need only lower our standard temporarily. When the conditions of Modern Language teaching in our schools are better and our Modern Language teachers—I say this advisedly, in spite of the optimistic view taken by Mr. Crofts with regard to English teachers of Modern Languages—are better trained, it may then be possible to raise our standard again.

Mr. Latham seems to me to waver between two courses. He argues in favour of the establishment of a direct association between the mother-tongue and the foreign language as an aid to memory, and, indeed, his general procedure will undeniably establish this association. Yet in two particulars he would struggle to break those self-same mighty fetters which he has of definite purpose been forging for himself—viz., as I understand him, in the matter of easy reading material, and in the teaching of translation from the mother-tongue into the foreign language. Here he would break his English-foreign association. But can this really be done? I think not—I believe it to be wellnigh impossible; and the advocates of the old methods, or the methods of compromise, are the first to say so when it suits them. They say that, even by using the foreign tongue during all the hours for Modern Language instruction, we cannot hope to establish a permanent association. I should like to ask Mr. Latham and those who are of his mind two practical ques-

tions: Do they wish their pupils on leaving school only to be in a position to read easy literature without translation, and to fall back on translation whenever in difficulty? Will they advise their pupils, should they have to write a letter in a foreign language, to compose the entire letter, or even the separate sentences, in English, and then to translate them? Personally, I maintain that the full enjoyment and appreciation of a French or German book can only be obtained by those who can read without translation. But we should probably find on investigation that, in English schools, about a fourth of the time devoted to Modern Language teaching is spent, from the outset to the moment of leaving school, in teaching boys to do precisely that which prevents their ultimate appreciation and enjoyment of foreign literature, and that another fourth of the precious time is spent in laboriously constructing a language foreign alike to the Englishman, the Frenchman, or the German—that is to say, in doing precisely that which will prevent them from ultimately writing French or German.

I believe that the method of imitative translation based on reading material, as recommended by Mr. Latham, to be on the right lines; but whereas he would spread it out over the whole course of instruction, I would advocate its postponement to the last year, or, in face of examinations in their present form, to the term immediately preceding them.

Have the direct methods (call them what you will) had a fair trial in England? Are not failures in their use to be attributed largely to the fact that they have in many cases fallen into the hands of overworked and underpaid masters, who have adopted the form without the substance, who have not found the time to study the underlying principles? Have the following points (platitudes) been duly thought out and borne in mind?

1. That the sentence, not the word, is the unit of speech, and that the natural process of learning a modern language at any period of one's life is analytic rather than synthetic.

2. That the success of Modern Language teaching depends before all things on the cultivation of the power of imitation. Why should we neglect to cultivate this gift? Imitation is probably the biggest factor in civilization.

3. That avoiding from the outset the use of translation as an aid to comprehension will bring its sure reward. This can hardly be done without a really careful graduation of the early lessons.

XI.

Mr. T. Keen

(Glasgow High School).

If the appearance, in increasing numbers, of so many first and second year courses on 'direct' lines may be taken as evidence that translation is gradually being banished from the preparatory stages of teaching, the advocates of reform have already good reason to congratulate themselves. It is obvious that any method which purports to exclude the frequent use of the mother-tongue must be most carefully graded with regard to vocabulary. For purposes of teaching, as in the familiar use of the mother-tongue, a language falls into two parts, which we may here term roughly the 'commonplace' and the 'literary.' The former division consists of such words and phrases as the pupil must thoroughly assimilate and hold as a permanent possession for instant use in speech or writing. For the latter division it will suffice if he can at once recognize on reading or with slight effort recall for purposes of composition. There is, of course, no fixed boundary line. With progress the commonplace vocabulary is extended by drawing more and more from the literary. But it is, broadly speaking, upon the foundation of the commonplace that the literary language is to be built, and the radical mistake of many of the older methods seems to me to have been that they either reversed the process or

attempted to teach both conjointly from the beginning. My conviction is that the early stages should be as 'intense' as is compatible with the perfect comprehension of every member of the class, and that English should only be used as a last resort. A French-English vocabulary seems to me the abandonment of the whole position, and should be unnecessary, unless the book is overcharged with too many or too difficult words. At the same time it is well to say emphatically that the use of a vocabulary which is imperfectly understood does not come under the heading of any method whatever. No risk should be run, and the weaker pupil must occasionally be helped by means of translation. Here it is plainly of importance that pupils of equal attainments should be classed together, that the use of English may be reduced to the minimum. And where recourse is thus had to English the foreign atmosphere should be reasserted so that the final impression may obliterate the English idiom in the pupil's mind. In any case *continuous* translation at this elementary stage seems not only out of place, but harmful. Whether the master cares to satisfy himself as to the success of his teaching by the occasional (unprepared) translation of some passage previously read and explained in French is quite another matter. It is a useful kind of stock-taking. There is no more searching test and no more convincing way of showing how far his methods need to be revised.

There is a good deal to be said for English-French drill on the text read. It may be done with closed books, the master supplying and varying the English form as a vehicle for the reproduction of the text by the class. It is a valuable preparation for composition. It is exactly the reverse of the process complained of in translation into English, seeing that it fixes the mind almost entirely on the French idiom. It serves also to correct inaccuracy in the matter of tense, mood, and concord. That such a corrective is often needed should not be a matter for surprise. In a language so analytical as English a boy can gather quickly the sense of what he reads without realizing more than vaguely the relationship of words. There is at least a probability that he will apply the same methods to the foreign language, unless due precautions are taken.

At the conclusion of the preparatory stage the pupil should be sensible of certain power of self-expression, both orally and on paper; he will have formed the habit of thinking and writing in phrases rather than in words; his accent should be so far fixed that only occasional guidance will be necessary. None of these acquirements should be allowed to lapse or weaken in the literary period which is to follow. Some time and place must be found to maintain and increase the proficiency already attained by work on the familiar lines of the early stages—*i.e.*, where older methods are now introduced they will not supersede so much as be superadded to the new. In this direction much might be done if all texts could be chosen of such a degree of difficulty as to allow of their being read *first* in French. Unfortunately the text-books themselves are wanting. Their successful use depends largely on the explanations being based strictly on the early vocabulary. In default of such, and under the weight of work entailed by from five to seven classes per day, there is little wonder if the most enthusiastic teacher comes short of his ideals. If it had been possible at the outset for some authoritative body to draw up a detailed minimum vocabulary for the work of the first two or three years, leaving individuals to introduce the said vocabulary into their courses, we might now be in possession of a series of texts, with notes given in terms of that vocabulary, of sufficient variety in interest, in style, and in difficulty to suit all tastes, grades, and requirements. As it is, anarchy and confusion reign.

Translation in itself is undoubtedly an excellent training in literary taste. The endless search for the apt word or the happy expression forms a valuable exercise

which we have scarcely the right to withhold altogether, especially in the higher classes, from the boy who has but one foreign language to study. The master has a right to extra time for the purpose, and it should be frankly admitted that it is bestowed mainly in the interest of the mother-tongue.

Finally, in the highest forms, texts of rare and difficult vocabulary may have been chosen for special reasons or imposed by external authority. It is conceivable that any attempt to explain such texts in French may be a sheer waste of time. Fortunately, when the course is so nearly ended, there is little probability that this kind of 'top-dressing' will have the effect of undoing the work of years.

THE PLACE OF GERMAN IN THE CURRICULUM OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

THE last year's numbers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING have brought so many excellent papers on the different systems and methods of foreign language tuition that it appears almost presumptuous on my part to venture on the subject again, but Mr. A. C. Benson's truly Herbartian article in the February number may plead my excuses.

To create a real and lively interest in our pupils for the subject taught is one of the truest aims of pedagogy.

Have the Modern Language teachers been able to create such interest? Has any success brought recognition from headquarters? I think not; at all events, in isolated cases only.

In some schools, no doubt, foreign languages are taught, not for the sake of practical, tangible aims only, but, as far as I can learn, in the large majority of schools, mere conversation or translation, a mere reading qualification, are the object of the lessons. A real educational aim, such as the classics afford, is but rarely seriously attempted and practised in Modern Language tuition. The demands upon the curriculum are constantly increasing, and the difficulty to find time for new subjects bars the desired progress. History, English and European, and geography are dolefully insufficiently taught, and if such subjects are neglected, what can be expected for German and French! What a *testimonium paupertatis* is the need of a society, which has just been formed, for purchasing maps and Empire literature to be presented to the schools!

The need of reformation of the curriculum is urgent. The most burning question appears to me: Which of the two Modern Languages, French or German, is best suited for raising the aim of the tuition of the living idioms? We all know the arguments in favour of French, such as, for instance, moderate inflexions, Latin forming the etymological basis, etc. But let me ask: How much Latin does a boy of the third form know to realize its influence upon the French language? Is it not *alter Zopf* to consider some knowledge of French to be an accomplishment appertaining to an educated youth? Why? perhaps because French is still the medium of communication amongst the Diplomatists of Europe or the *entente cordiale*. Surely such reasons ought not to weigh with the pedagogue whose goal is to make 'as perfect a gentleman of his pupil' as possible. Mr. Benson thinks that Greek would raise the aim, if it could find a place in the curriculum; but, next to Greek, German is hinted at, and the influence of Schiller upon Carlyle is referred to. Why, therefore, not embrace the suggestion, the more so as an unlimited selection of highly educational literature, from *Märchen* to *Goethe's* plays, is ready at hand?

The interchange between English and German currents of thought has been

continuous ever since the Anglo-Saxons landed on these shores. English remained Germanic in spite of the grafting of Norman-French upon it. We cannot get away from the fact that the English and the Germans are really one race. The other day I read an article in which the writer lays stress upon the fact that we are a purer German nationality than the Germans themselves. This state of things may not in itself be a reason for preferring German to French as a starting-point for Modern Languages, but it emphasizes the close relationship of German with our language. And as language is the child of thought, German sensitive faculty must be nearer our own sentiment than a foreign tongue having more of a Latin than a Teutonic basis. It is therefore a better medium of education for us than any other foreign language. It will be easier to adapt German poesy and literature to English ideas, than the brilliant French. We can draw close to German writers; we can realize the depth of the religious poetry of the sixteenth and seventeenth century hymn-writers, can understand 'their surroundings, their circle, their aspirations in a way which makes their writings glow and tingle with life and sympathy.'

Have not German fairy-tales made their home amongst us? Are not *Robinson Crusoe*, *Gulliver's Travels*, and the *Waverley Novels* found in every German home and school?

From the earliest times to the present, German and English thought have coincided; it is remarkable how, in all progress, English and German minds have marched in the same groove and supported and supplemented one another. One might be tempted to compare the sixteenth-century euphuism with its sprightly witticism and its influence on literature with the 'coquetting' of French of the present day. Fortunately, John Lyly's glory was shortlived; English character soon asserted itself, and depth of feeling and genuineness banished flippancy. From a schoolmaster's point of view, I may be permitted to hope that a similar fate awaits the 'Frenchification' of our youths. From a political standpoint, nothing can be urged against the *entente cordiale*.

It is remarkable how the solid and serious nature of the English killed euphuism; in literature lessons, it was like breathing the fresh morning air after a brilliant dance in the dust-laden atmosphere of a mirrored ballroom when we finished Lyly and started with Shakespeare. And how has Germany responded to our sentiment? In adopting, nay, absorbing our greatest poets' philosophy and psychology! Owing to the remarkable flexibility of the German language which facilitates a thorough translation of a foreign tongue, English spirit and thought can be, and are, reproduced in a form so close to the original that there is hardly any difference between original and copy. Schlegel and Tieck's translation of Shakespeare is the best testimony of the close relationship of the currents of thought and emotion between English and German, whereas the contrary is proved between English and French by the translation of Shakespeare by I. F. Ducis; this speaks for itself. Thus, the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries show the interchange of the currents of thought in a marked degree. And if that be admitted, it follows that we should teach the medium of that thought, namely, the German language. According to Professor Engel, the English language contained in the thirteenth century 95 per cent., in the sixteenth century 93 per cent. (the Gospel translation), in the nineteenth century 88 per cent. of Germanic words. The roots of both languages are practically the same, and are therefore more easily acquired.

The phonetic elements in German and English are also nearer related to one another than in French; in fact, German builds the phonetic bridge between English and French. The French nasal sounds *on*, *en*, *in*, *un*, are but seldom correctly uttered by English boys, and it is very rare indeed to find an Englishman to be a good French linguist unless he has lived in France as a young boy and for a considerable time.

Bismarck once said: 'Lord Fitzmaurice is the only Englishman that can speak decent French.' That, of course, is only a figure of speech, but it has also a deeper meaning. On the other hand, I know, amongst my own friends and acquaintances, hundreds who speak perfect German. Therefore, it is clear to my mind that the proper German accent is more readily acquired than the French one.

The grammar of the English language, *das Blut und Leben der Sprache*, according to Professor Max Müller, has remained pure and unadulterated Germanic.

Then look at it from another point of view. The difficulty which the French find in penetrating into the innermost feeling of the English mind and manners, is proved by Voltaire's criticism of Shakespeare, whom he calls the 'inspired barbarian,' 'whose monstrous farces, which they call tragedies, have ruined the English drama.' Compare this with Lessing's '*Zum deutschen Wesen stimmt mehr das Grosse, Gewaltige, Erhabene, wie sich's in Shakespeare findet.*'

How far have the theories of John Locke and Matthew Arnold, the great English pedagogues, penetrated into our schools? Even at the present day the word 'pedagogy' is hardly in the vocabulary of the educated; how very few schoolmasters realize that tuition without pedagogy is mere wind. In Germany, pedagogy has been a recognized philosophical science and part and parcel of the University curriculum for close upon a century. German teachers—Commenius, Kant (whose well-known words may here be repeated: *Der Mechanismus in der Erziehung muss zur Wissenschaft werden*), Herbart, V. Stoy, Gervinus, Zeller, Grüllich, Rein, and many others—have gathered the sparks that Locke struck from the rock of psychology and kindled a great fire that warms and sustains the efforts of German commerce and science alike. England once again gave the initiative to progress; Germany received it eagerly, and digested the new truth and worked it into a science to the benefit of mankind. Reflect on the relationship between John Wiclif and Martin Luther; Locke and Pestalozzi and Herbart; Charles Darwin and E. Haeckel. The reciprocity of mind existing between the two countries is beyond dispute.

Germany is the land of the schoolmaster who, according to Bismarck, conquered Austria and France and founded the German Empire.

The material which we require to adopt for our schools in order to regain the lost ground (for our schools are behind those of Germany as regards learning), is there prepared for us. We ought, with English knack of adaptability, to seize the opportunity and learn German, and to learn from the Germans as they learn from us. They know and realize the advantages of English Public School life; they are straining every nerve to copy English 'character-building.' Even in that respect they will soon draw level! Let us be on our guard, and be equal to them by adopting for our own use the best they possess.

Therefore, once more, German first, but let French follow two years later; it will be to the advantage of both languages.

The truest word Professor Dr. Rein of Jena has ever spoken was: 'A judicious amalgamation of English School life with German thoroughness in pedagogical tuition would bring forth the ideal of education.'

From the commercial point of view it is also most desirable to cultivate a better understanding with Germany. The enormous advance German commerce has secured within the last ten to fifteen years proves that Germany, true to its Teutonic origin, has learnt from England; the younger branch of the race has profited by the shortsightedness of the elder one, which, resting upon its laurels, has in its unopposed commercial career been permitting itself to be lulled into a trance. Had we been better acquainted with the German character and been able to follow its evolution, the present awakening would be less painful. Germany ought never to have been allowed to sap the life-blood of

the elder sister. Had we kept abreast of her in education, we should not feel so bitterly hurt at the strides she is now making in commercial science and prosperity, threatening even to dispute our supremacy on the seas. Want of knowledge of German progress is mainly due to our nation's ignorance of the German language. Every German merchant, or shipowner, or manufacturer knows English and English habits, and therefore competes successfully in nearly all branches of commerce. The English merchant, shipowner, and manufacturer thinks it unnecessary to know German, and therefore he is beaten out of the field. And when the effect of such competition touches the pocket, the resentment is bitter indeed. *Ne mécanisez pas l'éducation*, cried Pestalozzi. We have made education too mechanical and material, and we suffer for it now. For that reason, let us learn from Germany, '*Prüfe alles, aber nur das Beste behalte.*' The book of German pedagogy lies open for us; let us study it before it is too late. To begin the Modern Language teaching with German is a necessity from a commercial and political point of view; from an educational and humanitarian point of view it ought to be our ambition.

J. F. Stoy.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the General Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, May 25.

Present: Messrs. Somerville (chair), Allpress, Miss Batchelor, Miss Partington, Mr. Payen-Payne, Miss Purdie, Professor Rippmann, Mr. Savory, Miss Shearson, Messrs. Storr, Twentyman, and Bridge (Hon. Secretary).

Letters expressing regret for inability to attend were read from Dr. Breul, Messrs. Milner-Barry, Moriarty, Professor Moore Smith, Mr. Pollard, and Professor Schüddekopf.

The HON. TREASURER made a statement of the revenue and expenditure for the year up to May 31.

The revised Memorandum of Association and Rules submitted by the Executive Committee were passed with some slight alterations; and it was resolved that they should be submitted to a General Meeting to be held on Saturday, June 29.

The payment of £50 to the Hon. Secretary during the current year for clerical assistance was authorized.

The report of the special sub-committee on the future work of the Association was then considered, and the following resolutions were passed:

1. That a Travelling Exhibition be formed consisting of selected books and apparatus for use in Modern Language teaching.

2. That during the first year the Exhibition be confined to books and apparatus for teaching French.

3. That during the current financial year a sum not exceeding £15 be spent on the Exhibition.

4. That a list of French class-books be drawn up for circulation in connexion with the Exhibition.

A sub-committee, consisting of Messrs. Bridge, Longsdon, Twentyman, and Miss Purdie, was appointed to carry out these resolutions.

On the report of the same sub-committee it was resolved:

1. That lists be formed (*a*) of foreign families willing to take English boys and girls, (*b*) of English families willing to receive foreign boys and girls, and that a notice on the subject be inserted in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

2. That a list of books suitable for the teacher's personal library, with brief notes, be drawn up and issued to all members of the Association, such list to be based on the list published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING of October, 1905.

A sub-committee, consisting of the

Committee of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, together with Mr. Twentyman, was appointed to carry out the latter resolution.

3. That a sub-committee be appointed to report upon the existing facilities for the training of Modern Language teachers, and to outline a scheme for future inquiry.

This duty was entrusted to the sub-committee on the future work of the Association.

On the motion of Mr. de V. PAYEN-PAYNE it was resolved that members of the Association should be urged to join the Bureau International de Renseignements à l'Usage des Professeurs des Langues Vivantes. Mr. Payen-Payne explained that there was no subscription, but that the bureau wanted correspondents in England. The Secretary was M. Georges Jamin, 76 bis, Rue des Saints-Pères, Paris.

The letter from the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford University, inviting the Association to hold its next annual meeting but one at Oxford, which was mentioned in the account of the Executive Committee meeting of April 27, was read, and the invitation was accepted with cordial expressions of thanks.

The CHAIRMAN read a letter from Dr. Breul, in which he suggested that the Association should hold the meeting of 1910 at Cambridge, and this suggestion also was accepted, with cordial thanks to Dr. Breul.

Mr. STORR, who had been to Paris with the London University party, reported that at the dinner given at the Sorbonne he had seconded the toast of the University of Paris, and had received a very flattering reception as the representative of the Modern Language Association.

Mr. Fabian Ware was elected a member of the Committee.

* * * *

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held on Saturday, May 25, previous to the meeting of the General Committee.

The sub-committee on the inquiry into he conditions of Modern Language teaching in schools presented a revised form of inquiry, which was approved.

The following new members were elected:

E. Cotgreave Brown, M.A., Amesbury School, Bickley Hall, Kent.

Miss Grace Fergie, M.A., North London Collegiate School for Girls.

SPECIAL MEETING.

A Special Meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the Board of Education Library on Monday, June 3, to consider the proposal to raise funds to place the Guilde Internationale, Paris, on a permanent basis.

Present: Messrs. Somerville (chair), Allpress, Brereton, Eve, Milner-Barry, Payen-Payne, Twentyman, and Bridge (Hon. Secretary).

Mr. Longsdon, Miss Partington, and Miss Purdie wrote explaining that it was impossible for them to attend.

Mr. FABIAN WARE, who was present by invitation, gave an account of the history of the movement, and explained the proposals for establishing the Guild.

After some discussion it was unanimously resolved that the Association should support the movement.

Messrs. Somerville, Allpress, Brereton, Eve, Milner-Barry, and Payen-Payne expressed their willingness to join the General Committee which was being formed to promote the scheme, and Mr. Bridge consented to act as one of the Hon. Secretaries.

CIRCULAR ON THE CONDITIONS OF TEACHING MODERN LANGUAGES.

THE following is the text of the revised circular which is being sent to our members by the Sub-Committee appointed to consider the conditions of Modern Language Teaching in Secondary Schools:

FORM OF INQUIRY.

A. Name of school, stating whether for boys, girls, or mixed.

B. *French Classes:* (1) Form or set; (2) number of pupils; (3) average age; (4) number of periods per week; (5) length of periods per week; (6) preparation per week.

German Classes: (1) Form or set; (2) number of pupils; (3) average age; (4) number of periods per week; (5) length of periods per week; (6) preparation per week.

C. Which foreign languages (ancient and modern) are as a rule begun at the same time, distinguishing between classical and modern side where necessary?

Would you consider the alternative method of beginning these languages at intervals of one or two years (*a*) desirable, (*b*) possible under existing conditions? If not possible, why not?

In what forms are Latin and Greek started?

D. If the teaching of any one particular class or classes is divided between two or more teachers, is this arrangement made because it is considered desirable or because it appears unavoidable? and does it work satisfactorily?

Is the Modern (foreign) Language instruction organized by—(*a*) the head master or head mistress directly? (*b*) a responsible member of the staff? (*c*) either of the above in conjunction with the members of the staff meeting for that purpose?

Are the books in use the property of the school or of the pupils?

E. What are the chief French and German books (exercises, grammar) in use, noting particularly those in the elementary classes?

F. *Examination and Inspection.*—By what external bodies is the school examined?

Which forms take the external examinations?

Is there any ground for thinking that the examination as now conducted affects unfavourably the efficiency of instruction? If so, in what way?

By what bodies, if any, is the school inspected?

In what ways might the method of inspection be improved so as to make it as helpful as possible?

F. *Staff.*—Names and classes for which responsible; salary (resident or non-resident; with or without dinners); hours in class per week (Modern Languages, other subjects); time occupied per week (outside class) in correcting and preparing, invigilating.

G. How far is the efficiency of instruction affected by any special circumstances of the school (*e.g.*, demands of parents, funds, average school life, previous schooling, etc.)?

Other information as to the conditions that affect the efficiency of instruction.

A MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' REFERENCE LIBRARY.

In vol. i., pp. 171-176, we reprinted a list of books which originally appeared in a Report to the London County Council. It was drawn up three years ago, and in many respects needs to be revised and brought up to date. The Committee of the Association have asked me to prepare a new edition of this list, to be published in an early number of Modern Language Teaching. I have sent a letter inviting suggestions to about thirty members of the Association, who have given or promised their valuable assistance; and I now appeal to our members as a whole to let me have the title, author, size, publisher, date, and price of any book they have found useful, with a short note indicating its scope. I should be glad to have these details by September 20.—Walter Rippmann.

EXCHANGE OF CHILDREN.

M. TONI-MATHIEU sends us the following list of French and German parents willing to effect an exchange of children with English parents:

FRENCH.

Retired solicitor, near Bordeaux: son (15) X boy or young lady from London or Oxford, two months.

Clothier, Marseilles (in summer in cottage near M.): son (17).

Physician, Vienne, Isère, large house and garden: son (20).

Retired manufacturer, environs of Lyon: son (13) X boy or young lady.

Clergyman, centre of France: son (18) X boy or young lady, immediately or in holidays.

Manufacturer, bank of Loire River: son (17).

Tradesman, St. Nazaire, house in country: son (17).

Head master, Brittany: son (16).

Physician, Normandy: son (17) X London or Oxford.

Physician, near Rouen: son (15).

Schoolmaster, near Fontainebleau: son (15).

Schoolmaster, near Rheims: son (19).

Government official, Paris: daughter (15).

Watchmaker, Paris: daughter (12).

Tradesman, Paris: daughter (14).

Wine merchant, Paris, house in country: daughter (18).

Apothecary, near Paris: daughter (17).

Head mistress, near Paris: daughter (18) X young lady, beginning of October.

Bank clerk, near Paris: son (16).

GERMAN.

Government official, Berlin: son (25) X young gentleman or lady, three months.

Schoolmaster, Hanover: daughter (18) X from September, one year.

In all cases where no time is given the exchange would be for the summer holidays—six to eight weeks. All communications with reference to proposed exchanges should be addressed to M. Toni-Mathieu, 36, Boulevard Magenta, Paris (X^{e}).

The Hon. Secretary has received communications from two ladies who wish to be received as guests for short periods in French families. They are willing to give help in English and (in one case) music in return for French conversation. If any member can help, would he or she very kindly communicate with the Hon. Secretary, 45, South Hill Park, Hampstead, N.W.?

We have received the following letter from Miss E. A. Lawrence, 14, Norfolk Street, Strand:

'The letter of Mr. Neveu is keenly interesting to me, as I have been arranging exchanges for so many years. That which is needed in England is organization—a Central Committee with correspondents wherever there are Modern Language teachers. But it is here the difficulty lies: a secretary is necessary; one who will work for love; for even if a small fee were charged for expenses (ten shillings is the fee of the Société d'Échange International) this would be used in postage-stamps, printing, stationery, etc. I myself would gladly *help* in the organization, but cannot *do* the work, as my limit of work is thirteen hours a day, and that is often exceeded now.

'Will anyone whose hours are less come forward and offer their services? Naturally, we should work in unison with or under the direction of the Modern Language Association.'

THE FRANCO-ENGLISH GUILD.*

THE advancement of learning and the strengthening of good-will between this country and France were both concerned in the meeting held on the afternoon of June 5 at the house of Lord and Lady Weardale, Carlton Gardens. Convened by the Anglo-French Association named L'Entente Cordiale and by the Modern Language Association, the gathering considered the need of a permanent basis for the Franco-English Guild, now known as the International Guild (*Guilde Internationale*). That institution was founded sixteen years ago at the Musée Pédagogique, but was afterwards removed to its present quarters in the Rue de la Sorbonne, and during the whole time its head (Miss E. Williams) has voluntarily done such work as to win the approval and help of the English and Scottish Education Departments, the French Minister for Public Instruction, and the University of Paris. The movement for endowing the institution has influential friends, among whom are the British Ambassador in Paris, the French Ambassador in London, the Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin, Lord Weardale, Lord Reay, Lord Colebrooke, the Bishop of London, Lord Fitzmaurice (Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs), the Lord Mayor of London, Sir W. Collins, M.P., Sir Henry Craik, M.P., Sir J. Roper Parkington, Sir Arthur Rücker (Principal of London University), Sir Edward Busk, Sir Philip Magnus, M.P., Sir E. A. Cornwall, M.P., Sir H. Jerningham, General Davidson-Smith, General Luard, Archdeacon Sinclair, Miss Jones (Principal of Girton College), Mrs. Sidgwick (Principal of Newnham College), Mr. Reginald McKenna, M.P. (President of the Board of Education), the Rev. Dr. Wood (Head Master of Harrow), Mr. A. Barton Kent, Professor M. E. Sadler, Mr. Fabian Ware, Mr. Cathcart Wason, M.P., Dr. R. Mullineaux Walmsley (Principal of Northampton Institute), M. Rondet-Saint, and M. Max Vincent, the two last being Vice-Presidents of the Association Franco-Anglaise.

Lord WEARDALE, who presided, said the time had come to give Miss Williams more help in her enterprise for the benefit of Great Britain and France. Nothing could do more to promote the *entente cordiale* than the spread of a knowledge of both languages in the two nations.

Miss WILLIAMS gave an account of the origin and growth of the International Guild, and of the reasons in favour of changing it from a private foundation to a public institution. Among other things she said that the institution now had fully-organized courses of instruction in the French language, literature, and history, adapted to the needs of English-speaking and other foreign students. In the last eleven months 220 English-speaking persons, of whom 192 were women and 28 men, had entered. In addition to the regular course of instruction exchange lessons were constantly being arranged between French and English members of the Guild. There was a library, a reading-room, and an inquiry department. In November, 1904, there was founded, under the same roof as the Guild, a hostel for women students, and it was at the present moment full, with five English, five French, one German, and one Norwegian, in addition to a French lady-housekeeper and a French student-teacher. Moreover, the Guild kept lists of respectable French families willing to take lodgers, and it placed them at the disposal of any non-French parents who wished to send their children to Paris. Such parents were often very negligent in their choice of quarters for the young people. There was a large and increasing French section of the Guild. As for finance, they paid £500 a year for the house in the Rue de la Sorbonne. So

* Reprinted from the *Morning Post*, by the courteous permission of the Editor.

far they had met all their liabilities, though their only source of income was the fees paid by members and students, but they had reached this not unsatisfactory result by leaving undone many things that they would fain have done. Had they more funds they could make better provision for the future. They could have a larger and less overworked staff. They could engage a secretary for the inquiry department, which was constantly receiving from England, France, America, and other countries requests for information regarding educational and social questions. They would like to grant a few scholarships every year, and, for the sake of the *entente cordiale*, to develop the social side of the work. With regard to an endowment for the Guild, she suggested as the most important step the purchase of its house, an arrangement that would cost about £13,000.

Lord FITZMAURICE (Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs) moved the appointment of a committee to carry out the objects of the meeting, among the proposed members being Lord Weardale, Lord Colebrooke, Lord Fitzmaurice himself, Sir P. Magnus, M.P., Major-General Luard, Mrs. Woodhouse, Professor M. E. Sadler, the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford University, the Head Master of Harrow, Mr. S. H. Butcher, M.P., Mr. F. Storr, Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, Mr. Milner-Barry, Dr. Kimmins, Mr. H. W. Eve, Mr. A. Somerville (Chairman of the Modern Language Association), Mr. R. Donald, and Mr. Fabian Ware, with Mr. S. H. A. Foy as Treasurer, and Mr. G. F. Bridge and Mr. W. H. Sands as Hon. Secretaries. He pointed out that the International Guild was far from embodying a new idea. At a very remote period the need was felt for institutions to aid foreign students. Such were the ancient English, Irish, and Scotch colleges in Paris, the one last named dating back to the fifteenth century, if not earlier. The difficulties of travel had something to do with the foundation of those colleges, but now the facility of travelling was one thing that made the International Guild necessary, because it brought together an enormous number of people of all kinds. Miss Williams's work had the support in France of educationalists like M. Liard, head of the University of Paris, and on this side of the water men like the Secretary of the Board of Education and Professor Sadler. Among diplomatists the late Marquis of Dufferin, the present British Ambassador to France, and the French Ambassador to Great Britain were friends of the Guild. M. Cambon was famous even among his accomplished countrymen for the beauty and purity of the French he spoke, and he was well aware that if French was a great international language, the instrument of diplomacy, English was becoming more and more a great international language, knowledge of which was necessary to the endurance of those two magic words, *entente cordiale*.

Professor SADLER, seconding the motion, said the friends of the Guild had long been aware that it rendered important diplomatic service to England and France. Miss Williams herself was a veritable oracle on French education. He had never yet found an enigma which had not received from her a copious and accurate answer by return of post. England owed much to Italy, the Netherlands, and the United States, but the intellectual influence of none of these had so frequently been a stimulus to us as that of France. She and the United Kingdom were engaged at the present moment in similar tasks; they were educating their democracies for social reform and the maintenance of wise relationships. No English teacher could rightly guide a pupil unless he or she had some knowledge of English history and literature. Each nation had much to learn from the other, though they were much nearer than they sometimes thought. Put the two together, and they came very near to Pascal's idea, that the best things were the union and harmony of two opposite truths. Referring to the project of an endowment fund for the Guild, Professor Sadler added that the Skinners' Company

had given £100 on condition that £5,000 was raised.

Miss JOHNSON, as an old student of the Guild, testified to its value.

Dr. FRANK HEATH, speaking on behalf of the Board of Education, said the President (Mr. McKenna, M.P.) had asked him to express a lively sense of the Guild's services to education, and his sincere desire that the endowment movement might be successful. The Board was deeply indebted to the Guild for help and advice in relation to training-college students sent to Paris. It was a condition laid down by the Board that they should get into touch with Miss Williams. There was a crying need in England for teachers of Modern Languages for scholars older than those in the elementary schools, and though the Board had not been able to meet that want directly, it had done all it could towards helping intending teachers to go to Paris, and, if they complied, to attach themselves to the Guild. Then, there were English ladies who in the junior posts of *répétitrices* were attached by the French Government to training colleges in France, and for the selection of those ladies the Government of the Republic was indebted to Miss Williams. More recently the Board of Education had made arrangements with the French Ministry of Public Instruction for placing English teachers in French Government schools and French teachers in English secondary schools, and Miss Williams was a member of the selection committees on both sides of the Channel. Moreover, she helped the Admiralty to find suitable French families with whom British officers seeking to learn the French language could live. It was clear, therefore, that the permanence of the Guild was very important to education. He had received that morning from M. Liard, head of the University of Paris, a letter saying that, while he looked with pleasure on the attempt to put the Guild on a permanent basis, it was an *établissement libre*, not officially connected with the University.

The motion was unanimously agreed to.

At the instance of Mr. BUTCHER, M.P., and Mr. A. A. SOMERVILLE (Chairman of the Modern Language Association), a vote of thanks was accorded to Miss Williams. Finally a similar compliment was paid to Lord and Lady Weardale, on the motion of Mr. A. BARTON KENT (Chairman of L'Entente Cordiale).

BUREAU INTERNATIONAL DE RENSEIGNEMENTS.

WE wish to draw the attention of members to the Bureau International de Renseignements à l'Usage des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes. It was founded at the Neuphilologen Congress at Cologne in 1904, and its objects are to aid Modern Language teachers of all countries in the difficulties peculiar to their work—not only as to books and methods, but also with respect to the exchange of pupils during the holidays or to a stay abroad. Dr. Breul and Mr. Bauer were the first correspondents in England, and they were soon joined by Dr. Edwards, then the Hon. Secretary of the Modern Language Association, who was succeeded by Mr. Brigstocke. The success of such an obviously necessary work depends on the number of correspondents to whom the secretary can appeal at need. In Germany, where the movement has been most successful, the correspondents number sixty-six, whereas there are only five in England. The natural

consequence has been that the Bureau has been of great service to the teachers of German in France and elsewhere. It now desires to extend its sphere of utility in England, and any of our members who are willing to answer questions on pedagogic points, or can advise on the stay of teachers and pupils in England and abroad are urged to send their names to the secretary, M. Georges Jamin, 76bis Rue des Saints Pères, Paris. There is no subscription, but every question has to be accompanied by a fee of a shilling. This organization should be of particular value at this season of the year, when so many teachers are or ought to be preparing to go abroad and to send those of their pupils who are able to benefit by such a change. The Bureau International can give information as to the right sort of families, which is often so difficult to obtain.

REVIEWS.

Dent's Further Exercises in French Grammar. By F. M. S. Batchelor. London, 1907. Pp. iv + 92. Price 1s. 6d.

Schools which use M. Berthon's admirable *Première Grammaire Française* will welcome with enthusiasm Miss Batchelor's exercises on the Syntax of the Verb—a small but well-packed book, designed for practice on the lines there laid down. Its scope can, perhaps, best be indicated by a quotation from the preface which M. Berthon contributes: 'Cette deuxième série d'Exercices de Grammaire Française est destinée aux élèves des classes supérieures, et traite de la Syntaxe du Verbe, particulièrement de l'emploi des temps et des modes, cette pierre d'achoppement des élèves anglais.... La méthode suivie est analytique. Chaque exercice est basé sur une *rigoureuse classification* des propositions qui constituent la phrase. C'est là, pour nous, un dogme hors duquel il n'y a point de salut.'

Too much stress cannot be laid on the importance of analysing the sentence to find the exact function of the subordinate clause. To the time-honoured treatment of the subjunctive in French grammars is due the schoolboy's traditional belief that this is the most slippery bit of syntax in an exceedingly slippery language. Should he be induced to work through Miss Batchelor's exercises under the guidance of the sane and lucid directions of M. Berthon, he will feel the ground firm beneath his feet.

The first seven sections comprise: propositions—(*a*) substantives, (*b*) adjectives ou relatives, (*c*) adverbiales temporelles, (*d*) adverbiales finales et consécutives, (*e*) adverbiales conditionelles, (*f*) adverbiales concessives. The rest embrace exercises on the infinitive, participles, tenses, prepositions employed with verbs, etc. Recapitulation forms a feature which the experienced teacher will appreciate; while eight pages devoted to *la formation des mots* form a useful, though perhaps inappropriate, appendix. As far as we have been able to test them the examples are excellently chosen; and last, but not least, there is not a single English word in the book.

We would commend this book to the attention of all schools doing French syntax, whatever grammar they employ. It cannot but act as a solvent of difficulties.

Arnold's Lectures Françaises. Book III. Compiled and edited by M. A. Gerothwohl. With illustrations. London, 1907. Pp. viii + 184 (text 160, notes 21, glossary 3). Price 1s. 6d.

Designed 'to supply the middle and upper forms of secondary schools with choice extracts from French writers and

poets, either as a substitute for, or as a complement to, the reading of prescribed texts,' this book of extracts, varying from half a page in length to six or seven pages, seems well calculated to fulfil its aim. 'The main requirements have been deemed to be literary excellence and idiomatic wealth,' and the editor suggests that 'the variety of the sources whence the selections have been drawn should add both to their value as "unseens" and to their interest as representative specimens of French style from *le grand siècle* down to the present day.' This opinion we heartily endorse, and add, from personal experience, that they afford excellent material for dictations in senior forms. As regards the notes, the historical ones might well have been in French, and the translations of phrases have been with advantage omitted.

The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages and the Training of Teachers. By KARL Breul, Litt.D., Ph.D. Third edition, revised and enlarged. Cambridge University Press. Price 1s. 6d.

Modern Language teachers might be classified as follows: Those who have and those who have not read Dr. Breul's handbook. To those who have we say: 'Read it again. The new edition has been brought thoroughly up to date, and contains much new information that is invaluable.' To those who have not we can but quote Dr. Breul's own words, and ask them to believe that he has most successfully fulfilled his purpose. 'These lectures,' he writes, 'are especially intended to be suggestive, and, in my own small way, I hope to fire your enthusiasm. Instead of discussing many different modern methods, I shall venture to lay before you my own opinions and experiences, together with my reasons for holding the former. I propose to throw out some hints on all the more important points of modern language teaching in schools.' But if Dr. Breul does not fully discuss many methods, the exhaustive foot-notes give references to the literature dealing with every kind of method, and anyone wishing to study the progress made in Modern Language teaching during the last twenty years could hardly do so without Dr. Breul's guidance. It is a little difficult to define Dr. Breul's 'politics,' if the term may be used. He is certainly not an ardent revolutionary reformer; he seems content with taking the best of the 'new' methods, and with speaking freely of the notorious defects in the older systems of teaching and examining. The cause of Modern Language teaching has not been forwarded by some notably extreme reformers. It is therefore all the more pleasing to find so well known an authority as Dr. Breul insisting on certain reforms that many head masters and some head mistresses still refuse to sanction. No one can accuse Dr. Breul of failing to see things in their right proportion, and such a manual as this little volume is sure to help beginners in teaching to realize the importance and the possibilities of their work, and, at the same time, to estimate more or less justly the difference between the possible and the desirable. Most Modern Language teachers are, under present conditions, pioneers and empiricists, and they are sure to profit by the excellent advice and abundant information contained in Dr. Breul's handbook.

Bechstein's Märchen. Selected and edited by FRIEDA WEEKLEY. Blackie. Price 6d. net.

A suitable selection of short stories, all dealing with the folk-lore of Thuringia, suitable if Bechstein can be considered suitable at all. The present selection, excellent in its way, does not quite convince us that Bechstein dealt with folk-lore in its most humane key, if the expression may pass. There are some harsh, incongruous notes that are not heard in the genuine, the best, folk-lore. The explanatory notes added by the editor are sufficient, if not invariably useful. It is conceivable that such a note as *blickte*, 'showed itself,' may increase what difficulty there is in the sentence *denn es blickte der Keim der Herschsucht. . . .* And when we are told that *da hiess es* = *lit.* 'it was called,' we begin to realize

that *lit.* is obviously a relative term, more so than we had imagined. The text is by no means an easy one, but could be used satisfactorily for conversation and reproduction, as the subject-matter is easy to remember.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

It deserves to be recorded that the Teaching of English section of the Federal Conference on Education unanimously passed the following resolution:

'That in the teaching of living languages the direct system be used, with occasional explanations in the mother-tongue of the pupil, when it is evident that the latter has not understood the teacher.'

⁂

We note, as a matter of interest to Modern Language teachers, that the Scotch Education Department has directed that in all schools under its inspection the recommendations of the Classical Association of Scotland regarding the pronunciation of Latin are to be acted upon, and His Majesty's inspectors are to be instructed accordingly. (There is a pleasing *double entente* in 'instructed.')

⁂

Still more striking is the announcement that the Department intends at an early date to introduce an oral test for candidates in Latin at the leaving certificate examinations. This is really a remarkable step in the direction of reviving a 'dead' language. As Modern Language teachers, we are bound to welcome it *if*, and only if, our classical colleagues will take pains to make themselves acquainted with the elements of phonetics. If they content themselves with merely substituting different English vowel sounds for those they have been accustomed to use in reading Latin, they will cause a good deal of trouble to the teachers of modern languages. We have heard certain attempts at the 'new pronunciation' of Latin in which *rosa*, for instance, had a very English diphthong in the first syllable.

How far the conversational element can and ought to be introduced in the teaching of Latin and Greek is a question which we may fitly leave to our classical colleagues to discuss.

⁂

In another column Mr. Stoy discusses the claims of German to an important place in the secondary curriculum. The following passage from a circular letter of the Scotch Education Department deserves to be quoted in this connexion:

'In the choice of a language to be studied, in those cases where a choice is possible, my Lords hope that every consideration will be given to the claims of German. At present it is found that the overwhelming majority of candidates take French; but it may be suspected that in many cases the choice is due rather to unreflecting custom than to any deliberate weighing of the respective advantages of the two languages.'

We refer our readers to the memorandum in which we found this passage, dealing with the examination of candidates for recognition as qualified teachers of Modern Languages. The scheme set forth seems to us admirable.

⁂

The French correspondent of the *Journal of Education* has the following note in the June issue of our esteemed contemporary:

'The resolutions of a recent District Congress at Bordeaux touch on some matters of general professional interest. Thus, it was carried that the maximum of work for women primary teachers should be twenty-five hours a week; for *maîtresses-répétitrices*, thirty-two. Again, the Congress held that teachers with large

forms should have the hours of service reduced or should receive extra payment. A third resolution was one to which the attention of head masters in England may properly be called. The new system of teaching Modern Languages imposes great exertion on the teacher. It was resolved at Bordeaux that no teacher of Modern Languages in a *lycée* for boys or girls should be required to give instruction for more than fifteen hours a week.'

BIRMINGHAM UNIVERSITY.—A scholarship in German (£50 for three years) is offered to students entering the Modern Languages School next session.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY.—In our last number we referred to the new scheme for the Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos. We are happy to record that it was passed on June 7 by an overwhelming majority (154 for, 11 against). This speaks well for the great care and thought devoted to the consideration of the scheme; and we may now hope that for many years no further revision will be required.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY. — The Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos list was issued on June 13. The following is an analysis of it:

	Men.	*Women.*
Class I.	3	6
Class II.	6	5
Class III. ...	6	6
Total ...	15	17

In addition, one man was allowed the ordinary degree and two were excused the general examination.

Specially distinguished in the examination: Mr. E. E. C. Tucker, of Caius; Miss E. F. L. Moggridge, of Girton; Miss D. H. C. Reeve and Miss M. A. Whitelegge, of Newnham. Miss Reeve obtained distinction in both sections of German.

CAMBRIDGE, GIRTON COLLEGE. — Research studentships of £40, tenable at the College, have been awarded to Miss M. C. Clarke (First Class Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, 1903) and Miss B. E. Smythe (First Class Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, 1905).

CARDIFF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE. — Mr. Arnold W. Smith, M.A., has been promoted from Assistant Lecturer to Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

DUBLIN UNIVERSITY. — The Chair of German is vacant through the death of Dr. A. M. Selss. Dr. Selss was himself a graduate of Trinity, and had long held this professorship. He had also been associated with Alexandra College as Lecturer in German Literature since its foundation.

There ought to be keen competition for this post. The tenure is for five years, the Professor being re-eligible; he is to teach both Pass and Honour [*sic*] Classes, and to discharge such other duties as the Board of Trinity College may appoint; his testimonials should include references as to personal character and evidence of disciplinarian capacity. Each candidate is asked to state his qualifications (if any) to teach any other subject or subjects in addition to German, and the salary is £200 per annum. Words fail us for adequate comment.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY. — Mr. J. L. Morison, M.A., Lecturer in English Literature, has been appointed Professor of History in Queen's University, Kingston, Canada.

MANCHESTER UNIVERSITY. — Of two scholarships offered by the Anglo-French Association of London, and intended to enable members of University Colleges to spend a substantial period in a French University town, that open to women has been awarded to Miss Adelaide Horrocks, of this University. Mr. H. C. Wright,

also a student of this University, was placed second on the list of male candidates, and has obtained a certificate.

* * *

We have received a copy of *The Weltwarte* for May. On the first page we see a translation of the *Loreley*, taken from the 'Anglo-German Songbook von E. Leibniss, President of Anglia Littorary [*sic*] Club, Stuttgart.' If the rest of the poems are like this, the book is cheap at 1s. We give an accurate reprint:

'I know not, what may be the meaning
That I not rest can find,
A story of bygone ages
Disturbs the peace of my mind.
The air is cool and it darkens,
Whilst calmly along flows the Rhine,
And down on the crest of the mountains
The evening sun does shine.

'The sweatest maid is seated
In magic light up there,
Her golden adorments glitter
She dresses her gorgeous hair
With a camb of pure gold she does part it
And sings an air from of high,
This has a most strangely impressive
Celestial melody.

'Mean while in his vessel the skipper
Bewildered with wonder and fright
Heeds none of the reep in the river,
His eyes only look to the height.
I see to the rigging him clinging,
Till ship and skipper are gone,
And this is what with heir singing
Fair Loreley has done.'

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, June, 1907: The Old Order and After.

SCHOOL WORLD, June, 1907: The Reform of Examinations (C. M. Stuart); The Use and Misuse of 'Unseens' (Professor G. G. Ramsay); The History of English Literature as a School Subject (J. H. Fowler).

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, June, 1907: The Teaching of the Mother-Tongue (P. J. Hartog).

SCHOOL, JUNE, 1907: The Admission of Foreign Students to the German Universities (G. Hein).

LES LANGUES MODERNES, May, 1907: La Phonétique (A. Grégoire, M. Chambonnaud, F. M. Vipan, G. Camerlynck); L'Enseignement Littéraire dans les Classes du Second Cycle.

BOLLETINO DI FILOLOGIA MODERNA, May, 1907: L' opera poetica di Alfredo de Musset (E. Ferettini).

EDITORIAL NOTE.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 1st of February, March, April, June and July, and the 15th of October, November and December. The price of single numbers is 6d.; the annual subscription is 4s. The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Modern Language Association who have paid their subscription (10s. 6d.) for the current year. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 45 (*not* 3), South Hill Park, London, N.W.; and subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45 (*not* 72), Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

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MODERN LANGUAGE METHODS IN CLASSICAL TEACHING.

When I began work as a schoolmaster, I had the disadvantage, as I then thought it, of not having been through the drill of a public school. The sixth form work was comparatively simple; for the rest, I began by copying, as well as I could, the methods of my colleagues, and set before myself the performance of the task allotted to my form. This was a certain portion of grammar, exercises on a certain portion of syntax, and a translation of a given book, each term. It was possible to teach the first and last of these things with a fair degree of completeness by means of constant repetition of exactly the same things. The second, which was a tax on the intelligence rather than the memory, was very much more difficult; and whilst rules and examples could be learnt accurately by heart, the application of these to passages of continuous English showed less satisfactory results. I was not, however, in a position to criticize, and if my superiors were satisfied I was the same. But before long the mechanical repetition of the same things became inexpressibly wearisome, not only to myself, but to any boys who were detained in the form. I then hit on the expedient of trying oral work in a very modest way—questions and answers on the texts in the language of the texts. I very soon became convinced of the importance of this, not only as relieving boredom, but as a means of teaching. But it was impossible properly to test it without the right of organization; and at last, when I was appointed to my present post, I found the opportunity of carrying out the principles which I had come to believe were true. Meanwhile

I had read and seen something of the direct method of teaching modern languages which fully confirmed my convictions. By great good fortune, the help of Mr. L. von Glehn in this department and Mr. W. H. S. Jones for classics having been secured, the attempt was made to apply systematically the direct method to Latin and Greek.

I need not describe in detail the many experiments we had to make and our many failures. In fact, the time of experiment is not now at an end: we have still many problems to solve, but the main principles are now quite clear. It is clear that there is no difference in principle between the right way to teach Latin or Greek and the right way to teach French or German, nor is there any in the objects with which all these languages are taught. They are all taught partly as a means of analysing and expressing thought, and partly as a means of understanding and enjoying literature. None of them is taught in order to earn money, but utilitarian advantage may or may not come as an accidental result. All, and not one only, are found to be a mental discipline and a help to the training of the literary sense. It is true one language may differ from another in one or other of these points, but none of them can be exclusively treated from one point of view. This I say because so much nonsense is talked about French and German being useful practically, Latin as a training for the mind, Greek as an introduction to a great literature. Any difference of method there may be depends upon the order in which these languages are begun or the age of the beginner.

To come now to the real subject of my paper: in teaching classics we find the same problems facing us and the same methods of solution available as in Modern Languages. The beginner has to deal with an entirely new medium, and our object being as far as possible to take one difficulty at a time, we find it desirable to use as material thoughts and acts and things with which he is quite familiar. The vocabulary of the class-room and the common acts of school-life, such as rising, standing, sitting, reading, writing, the use of the senses—all these afford ample scope for the practice of all the declensions and conjugations; and by the interchange of questions and answers it is easy to give examples of all common parts of the verb before arranging them in tables. When the habit of question and answer has become familiar, we may apply it to any texts read, in such a way as by each question to call for some definite act of the intelligence, and to have as little as possible of parrot repetition, if any. It is quite easy to introduce into our class-room conversation every common construction of syntax, such as, in Latin, question, statement, command, purpose, consequence, oratio obliqua, all which in a very short time become as familiar as English, so that practically no one

makes a mistake in them. By continual reading aloud of the text-book in the original the language becomes thoroughly familiar; by questions and answers upon the text all come to appreciate the importance of order and arrangement —that is to say, the essential part of style; and by the written reproduction of stories, told by word of mouth or read, the vocabulary is enlarged and the lessons already taught are both tested and confirmed.

The results of the method which I have sketched were not altogether what I expected, but, in so far as they differ, they have been far better than I expected. In the first place, from the intellectual point of view the advantage has been infinite. I use this word deliberately, because the way in which the boys regard their work differs, not in degree, but in kind, from what I have been used to. It is no longer a thing of books, but an expression of life. The standard of accuracy is not the familiar 33 per cent., but approximate correctness; for it is easy when Latin or Greek is a spoken language to bring home the fact that a misuse of cases is as fatal as the dropping of the *h*—a vulgarity, not a slip. Since, again, no one is ever allowed to pass anything he does not know without getting it explained, somehow an intellectual conscience is implanted, which is an impossibility if we are content to wink at 67 per cent. being wrong in consideration of 33 per cent. being right. With pupils habituated to conversation there is no need to explain that a sentence which contains a blank for some unknown word is of no use at all as an expression of thought. By reproduction, and later by free composition on a theme, all the originality of the pupils is called into play, and I at least have been astonished to find that nearly every boy has originality, and that his compositions are a revelation of his mind to an extent which no one would believe who had not tried it. Two very important corollaries follow. In the first place, every one is attentive, and somehow or other the smallest lapse from attention can be seen at once, as it cannot be seen when everybody has his nose buried in a book. They are attentive because they are interested. They enjoy the exercise of their wits exactly as they enjoy the exercise of their bodies. For the master himself every lesson has its own fresh interest, there is nothing mechanical about his work, and even the correction of compositions keeps his attention fixed. When I think how, with the same sort of boys, or, even better, and with the same goodwill, my work used to be the profoundest boredom, which is now my chief delight, I have no need of any arguments to prove which of the two methods is right. The second corollary is: that the strain of discipline completely disappears. I believe that practically very nearly all the difficulties of class

discipline are due to boredom. Take this away, and they disappear also, because so long as pleasure is taken in the work there is no time to think of mischief.

In the foregoing paragraphs nothing has been said of one question, which has been much discussed: I mean that of translation from one language into another. As a rule, what is called classical work consists almost wholly of translation; and since the composition lesson is generally done independently, and corrected by the master in his study, the school work in classical hours consists chiefly of English. We have this fact brought forward as an argument as well for the study of classics as to prove that the study of English is unnecessary. But it is obviously foolish to try to teach two things at once, as if one should try to teach at one time swimming and walking upon stilts. Now, the direct method of language teaching implies not only a proper succession of languages, but a division of the time-table so as to give its own time to each. In other words, we must teach separately English composition and the use of the English language, if we are to get good results from teaching foreign languages. But this done, we may devote the classical hours altogether, or almost all, to practice in the classical languages, whether by reading texts or by speaking or by written composition. Then it is clear that the progress must be very much faster, and such, indeed, is the fact. Translation from one language into another implies a considerable mastery of both, and therefore its proper place is at the end of the course, not at the beginning. If sometimes difficult passages of the original have to be translated to make sure that their meaning is known, or if short sentences of English be translated in order to fix and illustrate some idiom, no harm is done. But the result of indiscriminate translation is dog-Latin and cat-Greek on the one hand, and the most awful nonsense in place of English on the other. With these things every public schoolmaster is too familiar. They are, in fact, the common order of things; but I have been forced by experience to the belief, that the less translation we have in the early stages the better; and that, as soon as a decent mastery of English and the foreign language is gained, it is easy to combine the two with a little practice in translation. Certain it is that in the pieces of unseen which I set to my sixth form there may be mistakes, but there is practically no nonsense, except in the case of those boys who had come from other schools at fourteen or fifteen with what they fondly believe to be some knowledge of Latin and Greek. Similarly, in proportion as we have been able to organize the composition on the lines above sketched, in that proportion literal renderings of words and bad idioms have been gradually disappearing. It will be understood, of course,

that these things have only been found out by degrees, so that we do not pretend to have attained perfection.

It is quite obvious that we have been working on the same lines as the teachers of Modern Languages, and, indeed, we are very greatly indebted to them for the light of their experience. How far my experiments have been directly due to them I really do not know. It would not make me at all unhappy if the whole thing had to be put down to their credit. My object has been to find out the right way of teaching Latin and Greek, so as to give my pupils intellectual honesty, simplicity of mind, a desire for the truth, and the discrimination between bad and good; and I have welcomed any help from whatsoever quarter, without caring at all where it came from. But if, as I think, the work has been mostly independent, it may perhaps serve to confirm the conclusions at which Modern Language teachers have arrived, that we have arrived at the same place from a very different starting-point, in the case of languages which are commonly held to require very different treatment. I hope that in the future it may be found that there need be no antagonism between the ancient and the modern. When I see how well each class falls into its place in a system of general training, comparisons seem to have only an academic interest. The fact is, that we should all work together for one common end—the humanities, the study and culture of human nature; and we have to fight one common enemy, public opinion, which is trying to substitute the study of matter. This, no doubt, is necessary, and I do not quarrel with it in its own place. Man's body may be a machine and a laboratory in some sense, but it is something more; it contains a mind and a soul to work the machine, and with these we teachers of languages are specially concerned.

W. H. D. Rouse.

LE BACCALAURÉAT FRANÇAIS.

Le degré de bachelier en France n'a pas la même valeur que celui de Bachelor of Arts en Angleterre. Pour ceux qui ne connaissent pas les programmes les observations suivantes auront peut-être quelque intérêt. Elles se rapportent principalement aux langues vivantes étrangères, excluant autant que possible tout autre sujet, et sont tirées pour la plupart des Programmes des Examens du Baccalauréat de l'Enseignement secondaire — Séries Littéraires et Scientifiques.

Les facultés des lettres et des sciences procèdent, chaque année, en deux sessions, à cet examen. Les sessions ont lieu: la première à la fin, la seconde au commencement de l'année scolaire. Celle-ci dure d'octobre à juillet.

On ne peut pas se présenter à la première partie de l'examen avant l'âge de seize ans à moins d'avoir obtenu une dispense. Les candidats peuvent choisir, lorsqu'ils prennent leur inscription, entre quatre séries d'épreuves: Latin-Grec; Latin-

Sciences ; Latin - Langues vivantes ; Sciences - Langues vivantes. Dans les séries Latin-Grec et Latin-Sciences il y a une épreuve d'une langue vivante étrangère. Mais comme ce sont les deux autres séries qui intéressent le plus ceux qui s'occupent de l'enseignement des langues vivantes nous laisserons de côté ces deux premières.

Les examens se divisent en plusieurs épreuves—les unes écrites, les autres orales.

I. Latin-Langues vivantes :

Epreuves écrites.

1°. Une composition française.
2°. Une version latine.
3°. Une composition de langue vivante étrangère (allemand, anglais, espagnol, italien ou russe).

Epreuves orales.

1°. L'explication d'un texte latin.
2°. L'explication d'un texte français.
3°. Deux épreuves sur deux langues vivantes étrangères dont une doit être ou l'allemand ou l'anglais, l'autre ou l'allemand, l'anglais, l'espagnol, l'italien ou le russe.
4°. Une interrogation sur l'histoire ancienne.
5°. Une interrogation sur l'histoire moderne.
6°. Une interrogation sur la géographie.
7°. Une interrogation sur les mathématiques.
8°. Une interrogation sur la physique.

II. Sciences-Langues vivantes :

Epreuves écrites.

1°. Une composition française.
2°. Une composition de langue vivante étrangère (allemand, anglais, espagnol, italien ou russe).
3°. Une composition de mathématiques et de physique.

Epreuves orales.

1°. L'explication d'un texte français.
2°. Deux épreuves sur deux langues vivantes étrangères dont une doit être ou l'allemand ou l'anglais, l'autre ou l'allemand, l'anglais, l'espagnol, l'italien ou le russe.
3°. Une interrogation sur l'histoire.
4°. Une interrogation sur la géographie.
5°. Une interrogation sur les mathématiques.
6°. Une interrogation sur la physique.
7°. Une interrogation sur la chimie.

Appréciation des épreuves.

La note de chaque épreuve varie de 0 à 20.

Latin-Langues vivantes :	
Composition française	2
Version latine	2
Composition en langue vivante étrangère	2
Explication latine	1
Explication française	1
1re épreuve de langue vivante	1
2e épreuve de langue vivante	1
Interrogation sur l'histoire ancienne	1
Interrogation sur l'histoire moderne	1
Interrogation sur la géographie	1
Interrogation sur les mathématiques	0·5
Interrogation sur la physique	0·5
Sciences-Langues vivantes :	
Composition française	2
Composition en langue vivante étrangère	2
Composition de mathématiques et de physique	4
Explication française	1
Interrogation sur l'histoire	1
Interrogation sur la géographie	1
1re épreuve de langue vivante	1
2e épreuve de langue vivante	1
Interrogation sur les mathématiques	3
Interrogation sur la physique	2
Interrogation sur la chimie	1

Pour être admis, les candidats doivent avoir obtenu la moitié du nombre maximum des points.

Les certificats d'aptitude portent les mentions suivantes :

'Passable,' quand le candidat a obtenu la moitié du nombre maximum des points.

'Assez bien,' quand le candidat a obtenu la moyenne de 12 points.

'Bien,' quand le candidat a obtenu la moyenne de 14 points.

'Très bien,' quand le candidat a obtenu la moyenne de 16 points.

Instruction pour les épreuves de Langues étrangères.

Epreuve écrite.—Elle consiste en une composition dans la langue choisie par le candidat (narration, description, lettre).

Une matière indiquant le plan et fournissant les principales idées du sujet est donnée dans la langue étrangère choisie par le candidat. L'usage d'un dictionnaire en langue étrangère, sans traduction, est autorisé.

Epreuves orales. — A chaque épreuve orale :

1°. L'examinateur remet au candidat un texte facile tiré d'un ouvrage contemporain, ou d'une publication périodique. Le candidat lit le texte à haute voix. Puis il le résume, en se servant de la langue étrangère.

S'il est dans l'impossibilité de le faire, il lui est permis de présenter son résumé en français, mais ce fait constitue une infériorité dont il est tenu compte dans l'établissement de la note.

L'examinateur pose ensuite quelques questions au candidat au sujet du texte lu par lui : questions et réponses sont faites en langues étrangères.

2°. Le candidat explique un court passage d'un auteur classique, choisi parmi ceux qu'il déclare avoir lus. A propos de ce texte, il lui est posé en français quelques questions grammaticales et littéraires auxquelles il peut répondre, soit en français, soit en langue étrangère.

Pour être bachelier il faut avoir passé la seconde partie de l'examen aussi bien que la première.

Les candidats à la seconde partie peuvent choisir, lorsqu'ils prennent leur inscription, entre (1) Philosophie ; (2) Mathématiques. Nul ne peut se présenter aux épreuves de la seconde partie qu'un an après avoir subi avec succès celles de la première.

Pour qu'on puisse se rendre compte de la préparation nécessaire pour l'examen voici les listes d'auteurs allemands et anglais pour l'enseignement des langues vivantes dans les lycées et les collèges français.

Classes de quatrième et troisième.

1. Livre de lectures contenant des tableaux de la vie à l'étranger, des notions pratiques, données sous une forme agréable et courte, sur le commerce, les moyens de communication, en un mot présentant dans des textes suivis le vocabulaire de la vie courante.

2. Choix de nouvelles et de scènes dialoguées, donnant, autant que possible, en même temps que des modèles de style pour les narrations des élèves, des peintures de mœurs contemporaines. Ce recueil peut contenir des contes, des légendes et aussi quelques pièces de vers.

Pour l'allemand : Extraits d'auteurs modernes tels que W. Alexis, M. von Ebner-Eschenbach, Fontane, Freytag, Ganghofer, Gottschall, Hackländer, P. Heyse, Hans Hoffmann, Hans Hopfen, Max Kretzer, D. von Liliencron, Raabe, Riehl, Rodenberg, Rosegger, Max Schmidt, Spielhagen, Stifter, Stinde, Storm, Sudermann, Wildenbruch, Wilbrandt, etc.

Pour l'anglais : Extraits d'auteurs modernes, tels que Marryat, Stevenson, Miss Edgeworth, Miss Mitford, Miss Montgomery, Mrs. Burnett, Ouida, Kingsley, Hawthorne, Hardy, Thomas Hughes, Anstey, Rider Haggard, Mary Wilkins, Wells, Jerome K. Jerome, etc. Courts poèmes et contes en vers de Cowper, Southey, Scott, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Campbell, Kingsley, Longfellow, Morris, Mrs. Browning, etc.

Si le professeur préfère faire usage de textes plus suivis, il choisit un des ouvrages énumérés ci-dessous :

Langue allemande.

Grimm : 'Märchen.' Bechstein : 'Deutsche Märchen.' Hauff : 'Märchen.' Goethe : 'Der neue Paris' (D. u. W., livre II.), 'das Puppenspiel' (W. Meister,

I. 2-7), 'die gefährliche Wette' (Wanderjahre, III. 8). Rosegger: 'Waldjugend,' 'Als ich noch der Waldbauernbub war.' Stifter; 'Granit,' 'der Waldsteig.' Storm: 'Pole Poppenspäler,' 'Geschichten aus der Tonne.' M. von Ebner-Eschenbach: 'Krambambuli,' 'Schlosz und Dorfgeschichten.' Wildenbruch: 'Neid,' 'Kindertränen.' J. Keller: 'Kleider machen Leute.'

Langue anglaise.

Hawthorne: 'Tanglewood Tales,' 'The Wonder Book.' Kingsley: 'The Heroes,' Water Babies.' Halliwell: 'Popular Rhymes and Nursery Tales.' Swift: 'Gulliver's Travels.' R. Kipling: 'The First Jungle Book' (extraits). Lady Barker: 'Station Life in New Zealand.' Miss Montgomery: 'Misunderstood.' Goldsmith: 'Vicar of Wakefield.' Johnson: 'Rasselas.' Sir John Lubbock: 'Pleasures of Life.'

Un journal à l'usage des classes peut prendre la place d'un des livres de lecture énumérés ci-dessus, mais il est nécessaire, dans ce cas, que tous les élèves de la classe y soient abonnés.

Classes de seconde.

Pour l'allemand: Choix de poésies lyriques—Ballades et Lieder de Bürger, Goethe, Schiller, Tieck, A. W. et F. Schlegel, Chamisso, Uhland, A. Grün, Lenau, Rückert, Platen, H. Heine, etc.

Extraits des œuvres en prose de Goethe —'Werther,' 'Wilhelm Meister,' 'Briefe aus der Schweiz,' 'Italienische Reise.'

Pour l'anglais: Sheridan: 'The School for Scandal.' Goldsmith: 'She Stoops to Conquer.' W. Irving: 'Rip Van Winkle,' 'Spectre Bridegroom,' 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow.' Stevenson: 'Treasure Island.' Longfellow: 'Tales of a Wayside Inn' (extraits). W. Morris: 'The Earthly Paradise' (extraits). Macaulay: 'Essays' (extraits). Dickens: 'Christmas Carol.'

Classe de première.

Pour l'allemand (La poésie dramatique)—Schiller: 'Wilhelm Tell,' 'Maria Stuart,' 'Jungfrau von Orleans,' 'Wallenstein.' Goethe: 'Iphigenie,' 'Torquato Tasso,' 'Egmont,' 'Faust' (1re partie), 'Götz von Berlichingen.' Kleist: 'Prinz von Homburg.' Grillparzer: 'Drames historiques.' Extraits des œuvres en prose de Wieland, Goethe, Schiller, Novalis, Immermann, Auerbach, Freytag, Scheffel, G. Keller, P. Heyse, etc.

Pour l'anglais — Shakespeare: 'Julius Cæsar,' 'Macbeth.' Extraits de Milton, Addison, Goldsmith (prose et vers), Wordsworth. Byron: 'Prisoner of Chillon.' Coleridge: 'The Ancient Mariner.' Dickens: 'David Copperfield' (édition abrégée). Macaulay: Extraits de 'l'Histoire d'Angleterre.' G. Eliot: 'Scenes of Clerical Life,' 'Silas Marner.' Tennyson: 'Enoch Arden,' 'The Brook,' Poèmes antiques ('Ulysses,' 'The Lotos-Eaters'). Thackeray: 'The English Humorists.'

On verra des remarques précédentes que le baccalauréat français ne ressemble en rien au Bachelor of Arts anglais. Ce n'est pas du tout un examen que l'on passe après trois ans d'études à l'université, mais un examen de fin d'études scolaires. On peut le comparer au London matriculation on aux examens correspondants d'Oxford et de Cambridge. Pourtant il y a dans le système français un avantage—il donne au candidat un plus grand choix de sujets, ce qui est maintenant presque nécessaire puisqu'il faut avoir obtenu ce degré pour arriver aux professions libérales.

A. B. Young.

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

THE PLACE OF TRANSLATION.

MR. LATHAM will be invited to reply to his critics in the next number. The discussion will, unless the Executive decides otherwise, be concluded at the next annual meeting, where those who have been unable to contribute to this column will have an opportunity of stating their views. The subject is so important, indeed, going as it does to the root of the Reform, that the most complete discussion is very necessary.

In the meanwhile I should like to call attention to an interesting article, of which the first part appears in the August number of our excellent contemporary *Die Neueren Sprachen*. The title is 'Die Muttersprache im fremdsprachlichen Unterricht,' and it is by Herr Büttner, of Elberfeld. It contains several interesting points, among which are the following:

Herr Büttner notes that there is a general reaction against the Reform, the only country in which its victory is complete being France. The reaction was almost inevitable. In order to overcome the inertia of custom, a Reform movement is sure to overstep its limits, to tend to extremes, and consequently to become vulnerable to attack. In England the Reform rapidly recovered itself. In Germany it apparently did not. Another and more important weakness of Reform systems is their liability to have their principles misinterpreted and misapplied by their own followers. Hence again vulnerability, for the opponent, as frequently in England, mistakes the abuse for the genuine article.

In Germany, according to Herr Büttner, the ruling method at present is not the Direct, but the *vermittelnde*, which represents an attempt to combine the new with the old, and, like most such compromises, is in its fundamental principle reactionary; it is the old with a new varnish.

The basis of the *vermittelnde methode* is translation. Its main thesis, as developed in its organ, the *Zeitschrift für Franz. u. Engl. Unterricht*, quoted by Herr Büttner, is that 'Alles sprechen und alles verstehen einer fremden sprache ist nur übersetzen.' Even a person who writes, speaks, and reads a foreign language fluently is still translating —but with lightning speed. 'Das sprechen einer fremden sprache . . . besteht darin, dass man blitzschnell von der eigenen in die fremde sprache übersetzt. Ist man ein stümper, so übersetzt man wörtlich, ist man ein künstler, so ergreift man sofort die entsprechende wendung, die man als solche kennen gelernt hat, aber jenes hinüber kann keiner umgehen.' In other words, the direct method is meaningless, because direct connexion between a foreign word and its meaning is impossible.

It is true enough, as Miss Batchelor points out in one of the following contributions, that a person taught by the method of persistent habitual translation, finds direct expression difficult, for the simple reason that no attempt has been made to create the direct connexion ; but to maintain that the latter is not possible, requires strong proof. Yet the German compromisers take the truth of the statement almost for granted : 'Alles sprechen in einer fremden sprache ist übersetzen. Das ist nun schon so oft gesagt und auch bewiesen worden, dass man darüber weiter kein wort zu verlieren hat.' Thus Herr Krüger, one of their leaders. Herr Büttner, in the course of his researches, was able to find only one proof urged—the fact that a fluent speaker will suddenly find a literal and unidiomatic translation crop up in his speech. The translation lies hidden in the background the whole time, ready at any moment to rush into the forefront of consciousness, in order to prove that it is alive and kicking. 'Eine weile ist alles gut gegangen, da—plötzlich —läuft eine ganz wörtliche übersetzung unter und scheint wie die lampe hinter einer dünnen stelle des vorhangs durch.... Wenn wir beim sprechen einer fremden sprache nicht übersetzen, wie wäre es sonst möglich, dass plötzlich eine wendung erchiene, die sich nur aus der muttersprache erklärt?' (Krüger).

In answer to this Herr Büttner points out (1) that the unidiomatic expression may itself be directly connected with its meaning, and not a translation at all. It is quite possible for a person to learn bald and incorrect expressions by the direct method. This, in fact, very frequently occurs. (2) That even if occasional translation takes place, which is only too likely, if the speaker has to hunt for his wording, it does not follow that he *always* translates.

Many of us, except on rare occasions, are totally unconscious of any process of translation. To reply that it goes on sub-consciously is merely an affirmation that still requires proof.

Herr Büttner goes into the matter in some detail, and the reader is referred to his articles. I will simply add a personal experience, which shows that the direct connexion, the *direkte Verknüpfung*, is possible. When a student in Paris, I had occasion to learn the word *cadenas* (padlock). I learnt it in connexion with the object it represents, and not with the English word. When I returned to England I found I had forgotten the word *padlock* completely. In order to find it I was, in fact, compelled to go to the French-English dictionary and look up *cadenas*. This occurred more than once. In time, of course, I recovered the word, and can now recall it with greater ease than the French.

In England the reaction has not, and is scarcely likely to go to the extremes it has reached in Germany. No one yet has been audacious enough to deny the possibility of the direct connexion. No one, on

the other hand, asserts that translation can be entirely avoided. The issue with us is nevertheless fundamental. It is mainly a question of difference in aim. Is our object to turn out skilled translators? and why? If it is, then translation must dominate our methods. Or is it to create the direct connexion? and why? If it is, then translation must retire into the background, for its habitual use becomes a stumbling-block. To answer these questions, it is not so much additional experience as clear thinking that we want. F. B. K.

XII.

MR. R. A. WILLIAMS

(*Professor of German, University of Dublin*).

I AGREE with Professor Viëtor in the wholesale condemnation of translation in language teaching. Mr. Latham's lecture was eloquent, but, to my mind, quite unconvincing for anyone acquainted with the literature on the subject. In fact, he fell into the mistake, which is only too common among the defenders of old-fashioned ideas of language teaching, of not noticing the arguments of the other side. Translation has not merely been condemned by a Viëtor or a Jespersen, but very good reasons have been shown for this condemnation. The defender of translation nowadays is therefore bound, if he wishes to contribute seriously to the theory of teaching, to show that the destructive criticism of Viëtor, Jespersen, etc., is false. I cannot see that Mr. Latham has done this, even by implication. Apart, therefore, from Mr. Latham's valuation of translation as a mental discipline, which is merely the traditional one derived from a period when psychology as yet existed not, his serious contribution to the question consists in his interpretation of his own experience. Professor Viëtor, however, has shown that that interpretation is largely erroneous. It would certainly be difficult to find anything more hazardous than the following assertion made by Mr. Latham, and the argumentation he bases thereon: 'When a language is taught on . . . the water-tight compartment system, it is associated with nothing but itself.' Language must be associated with the ideas of which it is the expression, and it is difficult to see why in the case of a foreign language the direct association should be less lasting than the indirect one of the foreign language first with English and then with ideas. It must be remembered that mental associations are largely habits. The habit of associating a foreign language with one's ideas, when once formed, has just as much chance of surviving as the habit of associating the same language with the English expression of one's ideas. The analogy which Mr. Latham apparently imagines between the second process of association and the use of the 'mordant' in dying, is picturesque but inadequate. It is just as misleading as the famous comparison of linguistic with organic developments. On the one hand the mental processes involved in learning a language, on the other the chemical and physical processes of dying—where is the connecting-link between things so disparate in their essential nature? It is true even the psychologist has often to employ metaphors in speaking of mental processes; but not every metaphor is of equal value, and Mr. Latham's appears to me entirely useless.

The present discussion, so far as it has as yet proceeded, seems to bear out my contention in an article contributed a short time ago to MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, that questions of method cannot be solved by an appeal to teaching experience alone. I argued then, and I venture to think rightly, that the best method of teaching can only be found when we have decided on the best method of learning, and that the appeal to experience should be first to learning experience. If every teacher were to answer the question, How

did I learn languages? before he faces the question, How shall I teach languages? I am led to think he would have little difficulty in making a choice between different methods. Of course, in answering the first question, he must be careful to distinguish between the way in which he actually learned and the way in which he was taught, as these two things are not necessarily coincident. If I may refer to my own experience, I can only say that I found translation as a method to be of no use in acquiring foreign languages; that, in fact, I made no progress in this direction till I abandoned the translation methods by which I was taught at school. This applies, without exception, to translation out of English. Translation into English is also dangerous in most ways, but has to be admitted to a certain (although very limited) extent, as a necessary evil, in self-study, when, of course, the foreign language has to be dealt with as a dead language.

Did Mr. Latham learn French by translation methods? Apparently not, for, after all, his arguments leave the impression that translation is to be employed, not so much as a means to acquire a foreign language, as rather a means to prevent its being acquired too successfully.

In conclusion, however foreign languages are taught, there is evidence in plenty to prove that, when once thoroughly acquired, they are not associated in the mind of the individual with the native language. Apart from other well-known evidence already quoted by writers on method, I have noticed reports of pathological cases in which the patient, having lost the power of expression in the mother-tongue, was still able to express himself in a foreign tongue. The bearing of this on translation methods scarcely calls for comment. It is quite clear that the person who tries to learn a foreign language by translation methods only makes the task more difficult for himself. It seems to me, further, probable that people with 'Sprachtalent,' whether consciously or unconsciously, avoid such methods in learning, however they happen to be taught, which most likely explains why under the old régime such persons still succeeded in *learning* languages in spite of very defective *teaching* methods. My answer to the question under discussion is the following. Translation ought certainly to be abandoned, unless it can be *proved* that as a mental discipline it confers certain intellectual benefits which are absolutely necessary to the individual, and can be acquired through no other form of mental discipline. The alternative, I personally believe, never has been, never will, and never can be proved.

Let me add that, as a method of teaching English, translation is at the very least unwieldy and unscientific. The teacher who tries to teach English in the time allotted to French or German is trying to do two things at once—a procedure which has always been revolting to English thoroughness and common-sense.

XIII.

Mr. L. Moriarty

(*Harrow School*).

I HAVE read Mr. Latham's article, 'Shall we abandon Translation?' with interest and pleasure. That the judicious use of translation is the surest way to an accurate knowledge of a foreign language; that it is unsurpassed as a means of intellectual discipline; that it fixes the language so learnt more thoroughly than any other method in the mind and memory of the learner, seem to me true propositions. I think, too, that in a public school Modern Languages cannot be taught *wholly* on different lines to a classical language, and that they should always be taught with reference to the mother-tongue.

The complete abandonment of the traditional methods of language-teaching seem to me to involve many difficulties.

It is clear that under such a system much more depends on the initiative and individual energy of the teacher. The strain, too, is far greater than it was. It

is obvious that the teaching of French in a large school cannot be entirely in the hands of foreigners or of native specialists, men who may possess little knowledge and culture outside their *Fach*. Under a new system, many men who teach several subjects besides French would have to abandon methods from which they can and do get certain results from boys, especially in Middle Forms, for a method which they are quite incapable of carrying out thoroughly and successfully.

As regards the pupils, I hear constant complaints that boys trained only on the new colloquial methods become very inaccurate. Their grammar is shaky or non-existent, their spelling fantastic. The facility in *speaking* which they are supposed to have acquired hardly compensates for the lack of 'grounding.'

We know the limitations of time and of organization under which our pupils work. If the public schoolboy is to do no translation, no grammar lessons, no 'prose,' then all the linguistic training (and I think it is a valuable one) which Latin and Greek have given him is thrown away. The classical languages are taught with the definite purpose (1) of giving boys some idea of classical literature by the careful translation of certain works; (2) of conveying much general culture incidentally; and (3) last, but not least, of improving a pupil's English by accustoming him to choose his diction and to think always of his style.

Under non-translation methods these advantages — as I must call them, especially with a view to older boys—are entirely neglected. Difficulties are shirked and loose, inaccurate renderings encouraged, if only they are 'idiomatic.' The tendency of the new school is excellently summed up in the famous words of the French Government circular: 'On renoncera résolument à faire de l'enseignement des langues vivantes soit une gymnastique intellectuelle, soit un moyen de culture littéraire.' If we were training couriers or waiters, or even boys whose aim it is to pass early to the warehouse or the desk, these restrictions might be useful. But our boys are sent to us to be *educated*. If Modern Languages are to involve no mental training and no attempt at literary culture, are they worth teaching at all at school?

I have always maintained, on the one hand, that Modern Languages are *living* languages, and should be taught as such; on the other hand, there is as much 'scholarship,' as much literary culture, to be derived from the properly conducted study of a great modern language as from that of Latin or Greek.

The solution of the whole difficulty lies, it seems to me, in judicious compromise. The bad old days when a boy might never *hear* a word of French nor *utter* one in school are over. No man who has t teach French thinks it beneath him to make a conscientious effort to master the foreign pronunciation. So let the class have at least *one* lesson a week entirely devoted to 'colloquial' work—talking, reading aloud, dictation, repetition, oral reproduction of stories, etc. Let the other lessons deal, in the main, with prepared translation and written 'composition,' essay or 'prose.' The 'oral' element of the lesson will vary with different teachers.

Now that Latin and Greek (especially the latter) are slowly but surely drifting out of our school curriculum, it is more than ever essential that modern language teachers should insist on the 'scholarly' and literary side of their work. Scholarship means accuracy and taste applied to language; literature involves the power to understand and appreciate great writers, and the desire to read them. Whence can a student get scholarship better than from careful translation? He has to face his difficulties and overcome them. He cannot shirk them. Probably one word, and one word only, is the right one—one expression the perfect rendering. He must hunt till he find it. All the time he is polishing his wits, developing his taste, and vastly extending his knowledge of his own language—which, after all, is

a Modern Language, and of sufficient importance to him.

Others have had to deal with this problem before us. The Roman learnt no dead language, but he learnt a 'modern' language which was both a *living* idiom and a polished vehicle of thought and literature. We know how familiar the educated Roman was with the colloquial use of Greek.

The scholarly element was not lacking. I cannot conclude this 'note' better than by quoting a few lines of the younger Pliny, who writes thus* to a student friend on this very question of the educational value of translation: 'You ask me what direction I think that you should give to your studies in the retreat which you have so long been enjoying. Above all, it is a valuable exercise (and many enjoin it) to translate from Greek into Latin or from Latin into Greek. This kind of practical training gives us discrimination in the choice of words, command of sublime language, abundance of rhetorical figures, force in developing ideas. More than that, by imitation of what is best, it helps us to attain equal happiness of invention. At the same time, the difficulties which might have escaped the reader cannot escape the translator. It is thus that we gain literary insight and judgment.'

XIV.

Miss F. M. S. Batchelor

(*Formerly at Wycombe Abbey School*).

I have followed with much interest the discussion on the right place of translation in Modern Language Teaching. It seems evident that even the advanced reformers acknowledge the value of translation in the later stages as a means of helping to develop the critical faculty of the pupil as well as of forming his style.

There is one point which I do not think has been emphasized—viz., the incompatibility of translation with 'direct' reading. In learning a foreign language one *either* learns to read in the foreign tongue as in one's own—*i.e.*, to take in the gist of a passage without paying much attention to the individual words—*or* one learns to translate—*i.e.*, to give a more or less equivalent word in the mother-tongue for each word of the passage in the foreign language. In the one case we lay stress on the sense, in the other on the words; and it is to be remarked that whereas the first (reading) does not hinder the second (translation), the second does hinder the first. That is to say, a student who can read or 'sense,' to use an expressive Americanism, however imperfectly, can at any time be switched on to translation, while one who has been accustomed to translate has to learn to 'sense' practically from the beginning, whether he is in a lower or a higher form.

I have frequently been told by pupils—not by any means the most stupid—who had been taught on the translation method, that they were quite unable to read without translating, nor could they understand when reading aloud or when read to, because they had not time 'to put it into English!' It was quite difficult for them to learn to read, and some never succeeded sufficiently to enjoy it.

It is, of course, useful to use translation at all stages to check inaccuracy, but I think it is possible to expect too much definiteness of idea even with translation, for what child of fourteen or fifteen really understands all the words he reads in his mother-tongue? I, personally, consider that the habit of 'direct' reading (and thereby of taking interest), as opposed to that of translation, is worth any effort, if the learning of a foreign language is to be a source either of pleasure or of profit to the pupil. In connexion with our old translation method it was very instructive to read that, in a recent congress at Stockholm, the English delegates 'seemed irritated at not being able to follow the French and German speeches,' and had their meetings by themselves—in English!

* *Epistles*, vii. 9.

With regard to the 'mental gymnastic' that advocates of translation put forward as a final and conclusive argument, I ask, in all humility, the meaning of that expression, seeing that the brain is not a muscle. Does it mean the (so-called) strengthening of the character by forcing pupils to do hard and distasteful work as such? To most, according to my not very lengthy experience, translation is easier than thinking in a foreign language, for it is always easier to use a dictionary than one's mind, and even if that were not the case, why waste our energies in making work harder than it need be? There is no royal road to learning even by 'direct' methods. Or does it mean the strengthening of the imagination? for that is just what it does not do, except occasionally, when we could dispense with it. Or does it mean the inculcating of habits of accuracy and thoroughness? If so, why do the work twice over in the same way? Have we not the classical languages given to us, so to speak, or at any rate used by us, for the purposes of translation? The number of schools, except, perhaps, girls' schools, in which only a Modern Language is taught must be small, and even there we have mathematics and science for the strictly 'training' or 'disciplinary' subjects, if they must be labelled; while it has yet to be proved that a living language properly taught on modern methods is not valuable training in thoroughness and accuracy. Nor must we overlook the fact that, to our insular minds, the value of trying to put ourselves in the place of a foreigner as regards using his language and understanding his country is undoubtedly very great as a means of culture, quite apart from any merely utilitarian motives.

XV.

MR. L. VON GLEHN

(*Perse School, Cambridge*).

ONE advantage of a discussion like this is that it enables us to tell which way the main current of opinion is setting. After reading the contributions one cannot help feeling that Mr. Cloudesley Brereton was right when, a few years ago, he foretold the victory of what he called 'the Left Centre'—viz., the party which accepts all the logical conclusions of the fundamental principle of Direct Association, but refuses to be fettered in the practical application of the same by any shibboleths whatever. In a word, it looks for guidance to its very clear and definite ideal, in which it has unbounded faith, rather than to tradition on the one hand or dogma on the other.

But in the present instance I think we owe a special debt of gratitude to Mr. Kirkman for the selection of the particular subject for discussion. It has focussed attention on a point in regard to which there seems to reign much confusion of thought, as is abundantly evident from the contributions to the discussion. And he has done this by seizing on a spirited pronouncement made by a member of what I might call the Right Centre party, an address which seems to have been acclaimed by the moderate reformers as a crushing blow to the more extreme tenets of their radical comrades.

But is it so crushing a blow, after all? One seems to hear alternately two voices in Mr. Latham's address. Indeed, he expresses so perfectly some of the ideals and methods of the Direct Method that one cannot understand how he reconciles them with others, of an opposite tendency, which he advocates elsewhere with equal warmth. Professor Viëtor and Mr. Andrews have pointed out this inconsistency in their admirable articles, which, if read carefully, will be found to deal with every point raised by Mr. Latham. I can only hope to dot their i's and insist on certain distinctions which it seems to me essential to bear in mind in discussing this subject.

It is perhaps hardly fair, in a controversy like this, to fasten on an opponent's analogies, especially when his address is rather in the nature of a fighting speech,

or at least a challenge. But I will ask Mr. Latham's leave to take up one of his analogies, because it gives me an opportunity of striking the keynote of what I have to say. There is no objection whatever to building some of the old stones into the new building, but we can hardly expect to use the old corner-stones over again, especially as the new building has a totally different shape!

If we consider the old method of teaching a foreign language—by means of grammar and translation—we shall see that it forms a perfectly consistent whole. It was analytic; the unit of language was the word (if not, rather, the inflexion!); the whole process of learning was one of conscious reasoning, the foreign language being compared with and in contact with the mother-tongue from the beginning, at every point. Thus the mother-tongue was necessarily the basis of operations: into it the foreign words were transposed as soon as seen—the time-honoured 'Construe'; from it the learner set out in order to get into the foreign language—the process we call 'Composition,' and the French *thème*. Note that the latter was the only way in which elementary and intermediate pupils ever got into the language and moved about in it at all, for the construing engendered the habit of reading off the foreign text in English. Finally, the extent to which the foreign language was really understood depended entirely on the clearness of the impression produced on the pupil's mind by the English (in which he would often meet words and expressions that were new to him), and on his general interest and need of realizing the 'content' of the text. In other words, the direct association of the foreign sentences with actual or visualized experience would not take place unless with advanced pupils, and even with them the slightest pressure or pause for reflection would bring the English to the surface. There was, in fact, little or no 'thinking in the language'; the development of the subconscious powers, so important a factor in the learning and use of the mother-tongue, was entirely neglected. But, for all that, the method formed a coherent and consistent whole, all the parts of which co-operated in providing what seemed to be the best means of learning a language—comparing and so associating the foreign words and expressions with their English equivalents. It had the advantage of providing a certain kind of intellectual discipline, and of being a valuable means of teaching English; but in its own sphere it rarely taught more than the ability to read the literature, and the knowledge of the grammatical scheme of the language—often not even that.

The Direct Method, on the other hand, is in every way the very opposite of this method. It is synthetic; the unit of language is the sentence; the whole process of learning is intuitive, and is devised to develop the subconscious powers mentioned above, the foreign language being kept from the beginning, by every possible means, in contact with reality. The primary object is to establish between the two the same Direct Association that exists between reality and the mother-tongue. It is a question of inculcating a habit, or rather of strengthening a tendency, which is strong in children, and it means that the basis of operations is transferred from *the words and expressions* of the mother-tongue, backed, perhaps, but not necessarily, by *visualization*, to *sense-experience*, *sense-memory*, and *visualization*, backed, perhaps, but not necessarily, by their *verbal expression* in the mother-tongue. It would, of course, be absurd to maintain that the Direct Association prevents the appearance of the English equivalent. The point is that the *action*, *object*, or *mental representation* which has evoked it, as its more natural expression, precedes it, and so makes it unnecessary, the deliberate collaboration of the pupil's will helping meanwhile to strengthen the Direct Association, so that eventually the English equivalent sinks below the threshold of consciousness. It makes all the difference whether in the

presence of the new word '*boulanger*' you explain to the pupil '*un boulanger est un homme qui fait du pain*,' or even '*un boulanger est* a man who makes bread,' or simply translate it into 'baker.' In either of the former cases the pupil has visualized a man making bread before he thought of the word 'baker.' Hence the importance of only having recourse to actual translation, word for word, in the last resort; and hence our absolute taboo of the old-fashioned 'Construe.' It may no longer be the means of explaining the language, because it tends to establish a mental association the opposite of the one we aim at.*

So, too, in the process of expressing oneself in the foreign language 'Composition,' or the translation of English into it, that essential part of the old method, disappears as a means of instruction. For it is plain that the process should be the reverse of the one described in the last paragraph; it is the sense-experience or visualization originally associated with the foreign expression that must be used, revived by an effort of will, to recall that expression. And here we meet a serious difficulty. Here, again, English will rear its head, unless the impression is very recent, and once the English is there the pupil runs the risk of succumbing to the mechanical process of translating word for word. To keep fresh and alive the Direct Association the pupil must be made to 'reproduce' freely, with no help but his visualizing memory, and perhaps here and there a question, the linguistic 'content' he has just assimilated; and he must reproduce it in various ways, so as to develop the intuitive use of the inflexions, etc., demanded by a change of point of view, time, or speaker. It also follows that free composition, the other instrument for acquiring the command of the language, must take for its themes subjects in which the direct association is already securely established—*e.g.*, a picture-story presenting objects and events well within the pupil's 'foreign experience' (what Dr. Walter calls his 'active vocabulary'), or at a later stage the skeleton outline of a story fulfilling the same conditions. Thus reproduction and free composition have taken the place of the second form of translation—translation into the foreign language.

But though no longer a means of teaching a foreign language, has this form of exercise, the harder side, the 'art of translation,' no place at all in the Modern Languages course? Undoubtedly, though not a quite adequate, it is a most severe test of one's knowledge, and as such plays an important part in examinations. But it is very doubtful whether it should form part of the regular school course, or of the examinations that terminate it. I incline to think not. At any rate, it is clear that it must come very late—not before the Direct Association is so secure in the pupil that he will have no difficulty, nay, will feel compelled, in order to translate the English, to forget the words, and see, feel, realize what it expresses. The test for the right standard of difficulty in such an exercise might be formulated thus: 'Given the "content" of the piece, the pupil ought to be capable of producing the foreign version as an original free composition.' The proper place for this form of exercise would seem to be in the highest stage of the study—viz., at the University. We have no right to introduce it earlier, for the sole reason that it is a convenient way of training our pupils to sift to the bottom a piece of English.

Finally, there is the translation of a selected passage of a foreign author into English—the French *version*—the other and easier side of the 'art of translation.' Again a convenient written test, and one not likely to be abandoned.

There is no harm in practising this kind of exercise from the first, so long as it is not frequent enough to interfere with the

* Dr. Walter's recent pamphlet, *Aneignung und Verarbeitung des Wortschatzes* (Elwert, Marburg), gives an instructive description of the various means of avoiding translation.

establishment of the direct association, and, in accordance with our guiding principle, the passage given must be one perfectly intelligible to the pupil *in the foreign tongue; e.g.*, a pupil should not have to translate '*Il aime le chocolat*,' or '*Quand il est l'heure de prendre le petit déjeuner, Paul descend l'escalier en courant*,' until the 'visualization' of the French is so perfect that he says spontaneously, 'He likes chocolate,' 'When it's time to have breakfast, Paul runs downstairs.' Experience has shown that such exercises need by no means be frequent, as preparation for the examination test. But they serve another purpose. They are in reality exercises in English style and useful tests of a pupil's command of his mother-tongue. The question how far this is a reason for giving them more prominence than they deserve for our immediate purpose must be left to individual judgment. I think it would depend on the question whether the pupil is learning any foreign language as well, especially Latin or Greek.

Of course, both the last-mentioned forms of translation provide a valuable opportunity of determining by comparative methods characteristic features of the two languages; but it is obvious that under the Direct Method such comparison can only be admitted, to any considerable extent, in the advanced stage.

To sum up, diametrically opposite ideals must necessarily develop incompatible principles, which in their turn must lead to widely divergent methods. It is useless to try to combine means of instruction which, though excellent each in its proper place, are by their very nature mutually destructive. We cannot serve God and Mammon.

Both kinds of translation found a legitimate place under the old grammatical method as means of instruction. Under the Direct Method they can only claim to be regarded as tests, and one of them, translation into the foreign language, is for many reasons inadvisable except in the highest stage of study. Above all, *Construing*, which lends inevitably to reading off the foreign text in very indifferent English, must be anathema!

I will not say that no teacher can succeed who combines incompatible methods. Men and, above all, children are not so rigid as logic, and their practice is not so consistent as their theory. But there is a feeling no man can mistake—when he realizes that his own small efforts are being multiplied a thousandfold by an irresistible force that he has set in motion unawares—a feeling that turns his faith into knowledge. And I never had that feeling in connexion with my teaching until I had accepted without restriction the theory of Direct Association, and directed my practice entirely under its inspiration.

XVI

Professor Walter Rippmann

If I join in this discussion, it is not because I hope to add much that is new to what has already been so well said from various points of view. It may, however, be worth while to express an opinion based on what is probably an exceptionally wide and varied experience.

It is a great mistake in many of our secondary schools that teachers have so little opportunity of seeing what is done in other schools. A man receives an appointment on finishing his work at the University, and it may well happen that he remains in his first post for a number of years. It is even not improbable that he is left entirely to his own devices; his class-room is a little kingdom in which often the head master neither ventures nor cares to intrude. After some years he thinks that he has acquired sufficient experience to theorize about questions of method. The fact is, that in all probability, he is in a backwater, paddling about but making little real progress.

To the inspector such cases are not unfamiliar. Often he is able by judicious suggestions to lead the teacher to a wider

view of his work, and to make him realize how important it is to look around and see what others are doing. He can gain help from recent books and journals, from his colleagues, from his head master, if he will set about it in the right way. Possibly he may have opportunities of watching teachers of experience at work. Well-advised is the head master who gives the men on his staff such opportunities.

It may seem that all this is a digression; if so, I trust I may be pardoned for dwelling on what I think a very serious matter. I have myself derived very great benefit from the many classes of modern language teachers it has been my duty to attend, and from the examination work of many schools that I have been asked to review. It is true that there have been cases where the teaching was bad; but this was more often due to ignorance of method than to deliberate indifference; and even from the work of a poor teacher something may be learned; how much more from the lessons of the born teacher! Often have I regretted that the lesson had come to an end.

Looking back upon teaching, good, bad, and indifferent, and on the oral and written work of many schools, I approach this question of translation. What can be, what has been achieved? Where did the results seem to show the most profitable employment of the hours devoted to language teaching?

I have no hesitation in saying that translation from English into French or German is hardly ever taught with success in schools. Every examiner tells the same tale. Pupils who are able to answer grammar questions of the old type (*i.e.*, not calling for an *application* of the accidence or syntax) fail hopelessly when they attempt to translate. I can remember only a few schools in which a reasonable proportion of pupils in the highest set could produce a fair rendering of an English passage of moderate difficulty. Where easy passages are set in the lower and middle forms, the results are generally wretched, and quite out of proportion to the time which has been spent. It would not be so bad if this exercise aroused interest. To many a scholar the task of translating is most fascinating, calling for the employment of great gifts. To the beginner it is a source of unspeakable weariness, for he is expected to handle material with which he is not familiar, and to apply rules which have not become a matter of instinct.

Before translation into a foreign language is begun, the knowledge of it should be considerable, both as regards vocabulary and grammar. When pupils have to go through a laborious process of mosaic-work, fitting together words looked up in the vocabulary or dictionary, and obeying rules of which they have to be reminded in footnotes, they may produce some kind of a rendering, but it is the result of work no less wasteful than it is distasteful. It is not the way to teach words, and it is not the way to teach grammar. Words must be repeated until their meaning is almost as firm a possession as in the case of the foreigner's knowledge of his mother-tongue, and no translation takes place. Accidence and syntax must be repeated in living contexts until the right form and construction suggest themselves, just as a little child reaches a point when it ceases to say *gooses* and *mouses* and regularly uses *geese* and *mice*.

Translation from the foreign language is a different matter, and can be started earlier; for the foreign words are given, and the pupil possesses some knowledge of the language which he is to write. Here good work is done in many schools, and it is best where the teaching of English is sound, and where the use of the dictionary is forbidden, or at least confined within reasonable limits. It is pathetic to see how in some schools the pupils shrink from unfamiliar words and leave blanks or make wild guesses. The pupil whose early training has been on reform lines has acquired some power of making out the meaning of new words. His teacher, instead of giving him a translation, has

attempted to make him find the word out for himself by introducing it into a suitable context. The longer his teacher has done this, the better he has learnt to guess; and if that word be objected to, let us say: The more alert he has become in associating new things with old, and hence in assimilating them.

I am convinced that before translating from French or German into English pupils should move for a good time in the foreign language only, and should also receive much more training in English oral and written composition than is usually the case; and that before attempting to translate into the foreign language they should have acquired such a knowledge of words and phrases, forms and constructions, as can only be gained by very frequent repetition.

It has sometimes been said that we have no time in our schools for conversation, a remark which, to be sure, is less often heard than in the early days of the reform movement. I am inclined to say that we have no time for translation. The question is asked: 'How many of the pupils are ever likely to be called on to speak French or German?' I would ask in my turn: 'How many will have to translate?'

What we desire above all things is that they should be able to read; conversation and translation are secondary to this. We want them to read, so that the French or German text will, as nearly as possible, convey to them the same meaning as to a Frenchman or German. To attain this end we must not translate; for no two words really have the same connotations. We want our pupils to know what *esprit* means to a Frenchman and *wissenschaft* to a German; no amount of dictionary-thumbing will give any help here. We can help them only by leading them to read, and they will only read if we have shown them the way, by making the study of the foreign language interesting from the outset, by inducing a sympathetic attitude towards the foreign nation, and by calling into play the pupils' activity by means of applied grammar and free composition. In this way the foreign words appear again and again in varying contexts, and their meaning comes to assume a more and more definite shape in the pupil's mind. If the books placed in his hands are properly graduated he is conscious of his growing knowledge and skill, and this consciousness is the greatest incentive to further progress. He will learn to read without a dictionary, just as he did when he had begun to read in his mother-tongue. Of the words which matter he will slowly but surely learn the inner meaning; for unimportant words (such as the names of trees, technical terms, obsolete words, etc.), but only for these, he will naturally consult a dictionary.

It was said some years ago, by one who should have known better, that anybody could translate an English passage into French if he had a dictionary. I am inclined to think that, unless this passage be an extract from a trade-catalogue, his statement is very far from the truth; and I would even go further, and into a province which I dare hardly call my own, and say that it is easier for anybody to write Latin prose with a dictionary than French prose.

To conclude: I earnestly hope that this discussion will not be without result. It should help to lift the incubus of prose composition from many a hard-working teacher of French and German in middle forms who has come to loathe this part of his work, which brings such a meagre return. For the examiner it will be a happy day when he no longer has to blue-pencil word upon word in the so-called translations of young examinees. No doubt he will have to correct free compositions instead, and at present a good many of these are not as free from faults as might be desired; but teachers as a whole are rather new to this work, and the best are already producing excellent results.

I feel tempted to digress, now that I have reached the subject of free composition, but remember in good time that I

am only expected to give my opinion on the extent to which translation is to find a place in our schools. Let me sum up, then: Translation into the foreign language should only be attempted in a very good top set, well grounded in work on reform lines; and, as a *regular* part of the work, and not an occasional test, translation from the foreign language may be tried earlier; but it should never supplant work in the foreign language only. This is the great help towards intelligent and fluent reading, which must always be the foremost object of our efforts as modern language teachers.

THE THIRD INTERNATIONAL ESPERANTO CONGRESS.

It is impossible in the small space at our disposal to give a report of this great gathering, neither is it necessary, for, in spite of the fact that Parliament was sitting, the daily press gave fairly full accounts, though, as might be expected, they were occasionally rather flippant. Several remarkable facts, however, may be selected as deserving of special mention. At the opening meeting at Cambridge, August 12, delegates from thirty countries were present, the special qualification of these delegates being that they must know two languages thoroughly—their native tongue and Esperanto. Of these delegates—gentlemen of education and position—about seventeen were unable to speak English, fourteen knew no French, and but four or five were acquainted with German. Yet, as the speeches were in Esperanto, duplication was unnecessary. Again, although the objective of these Congresses is the regulation of the language, and verbal discussion of the points raised during the year in the official correspondence of the International Language Committee, yet incidentally advantage is always taken of the intercommunication of so many nationalities to further such work as that of the Red Cross Society, Protection of Women and Children, Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, etc., and this year there were some twenty of these unofficial gatherings. As a result of one, an International Scientific Association has been formed, with such men as M. René de Saussure, and Professors Bourlet of the École des Sciences and Thomson of Cambridge, as leaders. Amongst the gatherings of the keenest interest were those of the blind, sixteen from six countries having made the long journeys necessary, and no one could see their bright faces without realizing the blessing Esperanto has been to them; for the acquisition of several languages is not usually an easy thing for a blind man or woman, unless possessed of riches, braille books being costly, and travel more difficult. It was most touching to see them eagerly comparing notes; one or two asked to be allowed to feel faces or hands, but as a rule they discussed matters as if they had their sight, and I more than once found myself using the Esperanto equivalent for 'Did you see?' so eagerly did they join in the various sight-seeing excursions.

To many, one of the great facts was the full service and sermon in Great St. Mary's on Sunday morning. The University Church was filled to overflowing with surely the most international congregation its walls have ever enclosed. The Rev. C. Rust, of Soham, had prepared the Esperanto version of the prayers, and of the singing it could only be said, in the words of Miss Esther Palliser, 'Esperanto combines the beauty and liquidity of Italian with the strength and virility of German,' and to add that the hymns were sung by the whole congregation.

The evenings of the week were, as usual, devoted to entertainments or social meetings. The plays were 'Box and Cox,' the Trial scene in 'Pickwick, and (on the 19th, in the London Guildhall) scenes from 'She Stoops to Conquer,' in which the players were from eleven countries.

Art was represented by the Vagabonds'

Club, and thus it may truly be said that Esperanto has proved its fitness for use in every department of human life; and this on the testimony, not of cranks, but of some two thousand sober-minded men and women, who have made long journeys, and spent money with difficulty gathered, in order to demonstrate to themselves and to others that this long-wished-for means of international communication is not an idle dream. For Modern Language teachers there remain two questions: Is such a key language necessary? and, Is its promotion unpatriotic? How can we answer except 'Yes' to the first question and 'No' to the second? Do we not teach Modern Languages in order to communicate freely with at least two other nations, France and Germany, and why confine our boys and girls to one or two countries? As regards patriotism, let us at least be logical, and, if we regard English as the only possible language for patriots, at once refuse to teach German, French, Spanish, or any other language.

One word of advice. As Germany has invited Esperantists next year, let all who desire to be convinced of the possibilities of Esperanto, or who have an open mind on the subject, arrange to take holiday next August in Dresden, and see and hear for themselves.

Two results of the Congress have already been announced. The Duke of Connaught and Lord Roberts have become hon. members of the British Esperanto Association, and the Peace Congress which has just met at Munich records that thirty-five Peace Societies have announced their intention to correspond in Esperanto. It recommends their example to others, expresses the desire that Esperanto should be taught in schools, and requests the International Bureau of Peace to transmit this desire to the different Governments.

E. A. L.

THE TEACHERS' GUILD HOLIDAY COURSES IN MODERN LANGUAGES.

ORGANIZERS of holiday courses on the scale adopted by the Teachers' Guild often have to balance one against another the relative advantages of annual repetition in established centres and of frequent change of *locale*. The Guild inherited two centres —Caen and Tours—when it took over the management of the courses initiated by the independent committee formed by Professor Findlay, but after a year or two it broke new ground in France—though always abiding by Tours — and, later, started courses in Germany and in Spain. For the last four or five years of the eleven during which the Guild has arranged courses in Modern Languages, the benefit of the accumulated experience of local teachers who have become experienced in the needs of English teachers and other students has seemed to be of more importance than the possibilities of better conditions in untried places and the freshness of change, as change, and the same four centres—Tours, Honfleur, Neuwied, and Santander — have been visited. Putting aside Santander, which, owing to distance and expense, and the limited demand for the Spanish language as compared with French and German, is sparsely frequented, the average attendance at the other centres during the last four years has been a little under 125. This year the number of students in those centres was 122—viz., at Tours, 39; at Honfleur, 42; and at Neuwied, 41. There is little doubt that this total is much below what it would have been had there not been a great multiplication of such courses under other management, more or less on the lines of those taken over by the Guild; but, provided that the others are well managed, the Guild lays no stress on large attendances at its own centres, requiring only that the expenses that answer to a high standard of educational efficiency should be fully met, with some

balance over to pay for improvements suggested by experience. Thus, though the general time-table of the courses arranged by the Holiday Courses Committee of the Guild has become settled for some years, the money left in hand last autumn enabled the Committee to add extra conversation leaders at the centres in France and Germany this year, so as to give each student practice in a conversation class daily, instead of three times a week as hitherto. This new advantage is likely to be made permanent, and great pains have been taken by a sub-committee so to arrange these classes that the utmost possible advantage may accrue from them. But when everything has been done in this way, the chief improvement in conversation classes must come from the students themselves. Awkwardness and consciousness of idiomatic inefficiency must not be allowed to excuse shyness and silence. Plunging audacity is the quality that is needed in all cases—at least, in the elementary classes—and students should remember that conversation in class in a foreign language is nothing more than oral composition, with an audience of like stammerers—excepting the teacher.

Three features of these courses which differentiate them from almost all others are: (1) That they are organized by a large committee in England, composed of representatives of several leading associations of teachers, and of representatives of County Educational Authorities. (2) That an experienced head master or assistant master from a public school attends each centre as representative of the Committee, and is in constant touch with the students and the *professeurs*. (3) That the students are all English-speaking, with similar difficulties and requirements.

The reports of the representatives of the Committee this year are all frank documents, pointing out excellences and defects. They all give evidence of material benefit derived by the students, and suggest further improvements. The ideal condition would be that each student should be the one English occupant of his or her temporary foreign home. To arrange this, however, would mean the payment of a much higher sum for board and lodging, so as to cover the cost of one with profit, and the further profit on an added two or three. As this is impracticable, students should take the remedy for the disadvantage of living together in small groups into their own hands, and, by exercise of will-power, for a time do the less easy thing—viz., talk in the language of the country among themselves, and correct each other to the best of their power when no native is present to correct them.

Co-operation with the efforts of the Committee in this matter, and in the matter of conversation classes, is almost all that is wanted to make the working holiday of a Modern Language course abroad as valuable as a three-weeks' sojourn in a foreign land can be made to an English teacher.

A standing difficulty in the French centres, which it is hoped that time may remove, is the securing of anything like adequate teaching of phonetics. At Neuwied the teaching of this subject is excellent. France does not seem able to produce any distributed supply of teachers of it.

There is evidence of a growing demand for what may be called holiday courses abroad for juniors—school pupils between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years—and the Committee of the Guild are prepared to meet this demand if it becomes permanent. Arrangements could be made without difficulty in existing centres by forming separate conversation classes and taking school premises, where the pupils could live together under the supervision of their own teachers.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE ordinary monthly meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, June 29.

Present: Messrs. Allpress, Brereton, Breul, Kirkman, Milner-Barry, Miss Partington, Messrs. Payen-Payne, Rippmann, Storr, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

Mr. Milner-Barry was voted to the chair.

Letters expressing regret for inability to attend were read from Miss Batchelor, Miss Morley, Miss Purdie, and Messrs. Savory and Somerville.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Exhibition, Training, and Teachers' Library Sub-Committees made interim reports.

The Hon. Secretary made a statement of the business done in the matter of the establishment of the Guilde Internationale, Paris, and reported that the executive of the fund requested the Association to nominate three members for the Executive Committee. It was resolved that Messrs. Brereton, Milner-Barry, and Payen-Payne be the representatives of the Association.

The following thirteen new members were elected:

A. C. Bray, B.A., 10, Glisson Road, Cambridge.
Miss Dorothy Gale, Shrewsbury High School.
Mrs. E. B. Glyn, Brancepeth Rectory, Durham.
Miss Grellet, Tiffin's Girls' School, Kingston-on-Thames.
Miss Agnes Hastings, 63, Salisbury Road, High Barnet, N.
James H. Hyde, A.M., 18, Rue Adolphe Yvon, Paris.
A. Kirsch, Secondary School, Luton.
Miss E. M. Landon, Heckmondwike School, Yorkshire.
Miss M. L. Lawrie, Broughton and Crumpsall High School, Manchester.
Mrs. Le Fleming, Eton House, Tonbridge.
Percy W. Long, M.A., Bryn Maw College, Penn., U.S.A.
A. P. Pelluet, King's College, London.
R. H. Pinhorn, M.A., Free School, Penang.

Mr. Milner-Barry was appointed local correspondent for Hertfordshire, in the place of Mr. Osborne Brigstocke, who has resigned.

The ordinary monthly meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, September 28, 1907. Present: Mr. Somerville (chair), Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Brereton, Kirkman, Longsdon, Milner-Barry, Miss Morley. Mr. Payen-Payne, Miss Purdie, Messrs, Rippmann, Storr, Twentyman, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

The Hon. Treasurer wrote regretting his unavoidable absence.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Sub-Committee on Training reported that a large amount of information had been received from Universities, University colleges, training colleges, and secondary schools with training departments, and after their recommendations had been considered it was resolved that a committee be appointed, consisting not necessarily entirely of members of the Association, to report to the Executive Committee on the existing provision for the training of Modern Language teachers, and to make recommendations.

The composition of the committee was then considered, and a list of twenty-two persons drawn up who, it was resolved, should be invited to serve.

It was decided that Mr. Milner-Barry and the Hon. Secretary of the Association should be hon. secretaries to the committee.

The Exhibition Sub-Committee reported that the Travelling Exhibition was ready. The thanks of the Association were due to

the publishers, who had, almost without exception, responded cordially to the invitation to present books and apparatus. Arrangements were being made, in co-operation with the local branch of the Teachers' Guild, for the display of the collection at Manchester and for meetings in conjunction therewith.

It was agreed that a number of books on method should be purchased and added to the collection.

The Finance Sub-Committee was appointed, consisting of Miss Batchelor, Mr. Payen-Payne, and Mr. J. D. Whyte.

It was resolved that the annual general meeting should be held in London in the early part of January. A sub-committee, consisting of Messrs. Kirkman and Rippmann, Miss Partington, Mr. Twentyman, and the officers, was appointed to settle the date and place and draw up a programme for submission to the Executive Committee.

The following new members were elected:

Bernard Bourdillon, B.A., Buddington, Midhurst.
R. M. Gaskell, B.A., Greenbank School, Liverpool.
R. M. Hewitt, Keble College, Oxford.
Miss M. Holmes, Pupil Teachers' Centre, Sheffield.
C. D. Linnell, M.A., Brighton College.
Miss C. Membrez, Budapest, Hungary.
Miss E. M. M. Muirhead, M.A., Wycombe Abbey School.
Sister Annie Louisa, St. Mary's School, Wantage.
E. G. Waterhouse, B.A., Ringstrasse, 40, Gr. Lichterfelde, Berlin, W.

It was agreed that Professor W. Rippmann should be asked to give a course of lectures on phonetics for teachers in January next.

Mr. D. L. Savory wrote resigning his membership of the Executive and General Committees, owing to his acceptance of a post at the University of Marburg. Mr. Savory's resignation was accepted with regret.

The preliminary business in connexion with the movement for endowing the Guilde Internationale (Franco-English Guild), Paris, has been completed. A large and influential General Committee, consisting of about sixty members, has been formed, and out of these an Executive Committee has been appointed, over which Lord Weardale presides, and which includes Lord Fitzmaurice, Sir Thomas Barclay, Sir Edwin Cornwall, Sir Arthur Rücker, Professor Sadler, and Mr. Fabian Ware. The Modern Language Association is represented by Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, Mr. Milner-Barry, Mr. Payen-Payne, and the Chairman of Committees. In response to an invitation of the Executive Committee, the Head Mistresses' Association, the Assistant Mistresses' Association, and the Assistant Masters' Association have appointed representatives. A pamphlet containing the appeal which appeared in the public press, a history and description of the work of the Guilde, and the numerous testimonials to the value of the organization which Miss Williams has received, has been printed and largely circulated. Every member of the Modern Language Association should have received a copy. We hope we may soon hear of a liberal response to the appeal.

Members of the Modern Language Association should send their subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer of the Association, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, E.C. We hope that the largeness of the amount required will not deter those who can afford to give only a little. Small contributions will be very gladly received.

Professor W. Rippmann will again give a course of lectures on phonetics for teachers in January. The lectures will be accompanied by practical work.

Full particulars will be published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING for November.

The new rules, which were circulated with the June number of MODERN LAN-

GUAGE TEACHING, were finally passed at a General Meeting of the Association held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, June 29, the President (Mr. F. Storr) in the chair. As no change was made in the draft which was sent out, it has not been considered necessary to reprint it, but the Hon. Secretary will be glad to send a copy to anyone who writes for it. Recruiting members will not forget that under the new rules persons joining the Association after September 1 pay a reduced subscription of 5s. for the remainder of the year.

INQUIRY INTO THE CONDITIONS OF MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION.

AT its last annual general meeting but one, the Association decided to institute an inquiry into the conditions under which Modern Language Teaching is carried on in secondary schools. A sub-committee was appointed to deal with the matter and to draw up a report with recommendations. Its first step was to issue a form of inquiry with a view to collecting facts. This was in November, 1906. The form appears to have escaped the notice of the majority, and early in 1907 a second form was issued to those members who had not made a return, and also to members of allied societies. The total return amounts to a little over 100, of which at least a third is due to the energy and sympathy of Mr. A. V. Houghton, of the West Riding Education Committee, who circularized all the schools in his area. The members' contribution has been about seventy. Considering that the membership of the Association is over 600, and that a large proportion of these are engaged in active school work, the result is not very satisfactory. It is questionable whether any valid generalizations can be based upon a return of 100, out of a possible several hundreds. Fortunately, there are other sources of information which will be fully utilized; but this does not alter the fact that the return supplies very valuable corroborative evidence, and that a last effort should be made to render it more complete. Any member who has not filled in the form, and can do so, is urged to forward it at once, and not later than the end of October, to Mr. F. B. Kirkman, 19, Dartmouth Park Hill, London, N.W. Spare copies of the form can be obtained at the same address.

Thanks are due to those who have filled up the returns, many being done with a detail and a care that meant considerable self-sacrifice. Objections to the return itself were few and far between, and came from persons who entirely misconceived its object, one or two, indeed, figuring the Association as a kind of highway villain demanding information at the pistol's point, in spite of explicit declaration on the form that only such information was requested (not demanded) as the circumstances of each school would permit it to supply.

Seeing that the object of the whole inquiry is to create the conditions favourable to efficient instruction—to carry into practice, that is, the main object for which the Association has been founded—every endeavour should be made to ensure its success. If the Association can carry through this work to a successful conclusion, it will have done something worth doing. It will at least have *done* something. The pessimistic may warn us that the 'something' will be but small. To which the only reply is the very old one: We do not know what can be done till we try, and nothing is achieved without trying.

SCHOLARS' INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE.

As most Members of the Modern Language Association know, the Scholars' International Correspondence is arranged with the co-operation of the *Revue Universitaire* of Paris, which publishes in its pages the names of all English teachers who approve of the exchange of letters, and desire its continuance in their schools. Notice has just been received that the autumn list must be sent in by October 15, and it is, therefore, earnestly requested that all teachers who wish their names to be placed on it should at once send in a post-card to this effect, and that any who are already interested in the correspondence, but have changed schools, should notify this. As the time is now short, will the writers send direct to Miss Lawrence, Mowbray House, Norfolk Street, Strand, W.C.?

More boys and girls than usual have exchanged homes this year. M. Toni Mathieu, of Paris, who has made this matter his special work, directed that the post-cards of acknowledgment should this year be sent to Mr. W. T. Stead, and a large number have been received. Considering the fact that English people are supposed to be very enterprising, it is curious to note that the exchangees are chiefly French and Germans, only about nine exchanges having been arranged with English people, two-thirds of which are with France, the remaining third with Germany. Some better means of co-operation with M. Toni Mathieu will have to be arranged before the next holidays.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE AMERICAN M.L.A. AND SPELLING REFORM.

In the June number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING (p. 127) you express a natural surprise that the Modern Language Association of America has adopted the recommendations of the Simplified Spelling Board. Permit me to explain the circumstances under which it was led to do so. The three resolutions: 'That the Association endorse the programme of the Simplified Spelling Board'; 'that it use in its publications the three hundred modified spellings already announced'; and 'that it publish members' contributions with these spellings in case the contributor signifies his approval'—were brought before the Conference without previous notification. They were introduced at the end of a protracted session, when many of the most prominent members, already late for luncheon, had left the room still uninformed as to anyone's intention to introduce resolutions on the subject. The discussion was cut short by a general desire to close the session, together with the repeatedly expressed impatience of the chief supporters of the resolutions. The majority for the first was slight and doubtful, since eight opponents voted for it under a misappre-

hension as to the question. The second applies chiefly to the programme of the Association, and some fifty little-read pages of the December number. It therefore occasioned less opposition than the third, which originally provided that members' contributions be published with the simplified spellings, unless the contributor expressed a wish to the contrary. This he might readily forget to do. It seemed safer, as one speaker suggested, that the contributor be asked to express his preference. As modified, this resolution was passed by a still more diminished attendance. The action of the Conference was hasty, ill-considered, and doubtfully indicative of the wishes of the Association at large. The Simplified Spelling Board shows questionable taste in permitting its agent to make use of such a trophy in its propaganda.

PERCY W. LONG.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
July, 1907.

NOT SOUND.

It is gratifying to note the great interest that is being shown in phonetics just now, especially in the academy schools. The new gospel may even reach the compilers of school text-books in time. I have just been looking at 'Aids to the Study and Composition of English,' by J. C. Nesfield, M.A., 1907, and I find on p. 115 the following remarkable evidence of modern phonetic discovery:

'VOICELESS AND VOICED CONSONANTS. —Voiced is the name given to those consonants which can be sounded to a slight extent without the help of a vowel. The voiceless are those to which no sound whatever can be given without this help.'

I suggest as an appropriate footnote: Hush! hush! hush! warning teachers and other guardians of infants of the uselessness henceforth of *f*, *f*, *f* as a means of enforcing silence. Stray cats, too, will have to understand that this is 'no sound whatever.'

E. R. E.

REVIEWS.

Athalie. Edited by G. H. CLARKE. Blackie's Little French Classics. London, 1907. Pp. xxii+106 (77 pp. text, 29 pp. notes). Price 10d.

The subject of the introduction is excellent, only interesting points of importance being touched on, with no superfluous details of Racine's life and works. Brief and really useful information on French versification is given. It is greatly to be regretted that this introduction is in English instead of being written in fairly simple French; the latter would have been a boon in class teaching from the point of view of conversation. The notes also err in this respect, for whilst invaluable extracts are inserted from criticisms by La Harpe and Sarcy, comments by the editor himself on literary points, Scriptural allusions, explanations of customs, etc., are all in English, which much impairs their value.

The notes for the most part have been carefully selected. Occasionally remarks on grammatical peculiarities might have been omitted—*e.g.*, on ll. 20, 21, 77, 201, 379, 680, 1009, etc.—as taking up the pupil's time, time which might have been more profitably employed in the study of literary points. Whilst some words presenting difficulties have been clearly explained in French, others, used in their ordinary modern French meaning, have been translated—*e.g.*, l. 847, *confondre*, 'bring to nought'; l. 1392, *mœurs*, 'character, morals'; l. 1529, *semé*, 'spread abroad'—an inexplicable inconsistency.

Le Manuscrit de ma Mère. Abridged from Lamartine by L. E. FARRER. Arnold's French Reading Books. London, 1907. Pp. vii+62 (32 pp. text, 30 pp. questions, grammaire et formation de mots, thème, vocabulaire, notes).

A good book for a fourth form, well designed on the whole. The vocabulary is a great drawback; the pupils will learn

to depend on a word for word translation in order to catch the drift of the story. The questions are excellent, some merely requiring an answer drawn direct from the text, others demanding more thought from the pupil, who has to reconstruct the sentences before replying. In the 'Grammaire et Formation de Mots' great scope is given for enlarging the pupil's vocabulary.

Grammar learnt in the earlier stages is carefully revised; pronouns are usefully treated by means of carefully chosen sentences in which nouns must be replaced by pronouns.

Some points have been dealt with which it would have been better to leave to a more advanced stage—*e.g.*, xxi. 5, 'que veut dire la préposition *de* dans les locutions beaucoup de, peu de, pas de, point de—qu'appelle-t-on cet emploi?' (cf. xvii. 2, xxii. 1). For these might well have been substituted questions on the agreement of the past participle, questions to which v., vi., and xxiii. lend themselves admirably; or passages with the verb to be changed into the passé indéfini; or a fuller treatment of the subjunctive, on which mood only one question seems to be found.

Froschkönig. Dramatisiertes Märchen von Henry Koch.

Das Märchen vom Dornröschen. In drei Bildern dramatisiert von Henry Koch.

Cendrillon. Féerie en un acte. Par E. Magee.

Blackie. Price 4d. net each.

These little plays are altogether excellent. They should prove most useful with all pupils in the elementary stages, provided they are handled by teacher and taught as they deserve to be. The printing and binding are tasteful, and these little volumes ought to be widely used.

An Introduction to Shakespeare. By Frederic W. Moorman, B.A., Ph.D. Teubner. Pp. iv+82. Price 1s. cloth.

This small manual contains chapters on the life of Shakespeare, the Elizabethan theatre, Shakespeare's verse and English; also notes on the *Merchant of Venice*, the *First Part of King Henry IV.*, *Julius Cæsar*, *Macbeth*. As a companion volume to these four plays the book will be very useful. Dr. Moorman has collected his information carefully and judiciously, and the volume seems admirably suited to its purpose.

Les Caractères: La Bruyère. Selections edited by J. Laffitte, B.-ès-L. Blackie. Price 4d. net.

A welcome addition to an excellent series. It contains *De l'Homme* and *Des Biens de Fortune*, with useful notes and a *Notice Biographique*. The editor has added ten subjects for essays. These little books are really very useful.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

Birmingham University.—Dr. Karl Wichmann, at present Professor of German at Sheffield University, has been appointed Professor of German Language and Literature, to succeed Dr. Fiedler.

Birmingham University.—The official degree of M.A. has been conferred upon Señor F. de Arteaga (Lecturer in Spanish and Italian).

Dublin University. — Dr. R. A. Williams, Reader in German, London University, has been appointed Professor of German in succession to the late Dr. Selss.

Dundee University College.—We announce with regret the death of Dr. Baildon, who had been Lecturer on English Language and Literature at University College, Dundee, since 1901. He was a native of Edinburgh, and had a distinguished career at the Universities of Edinburgh and Cambridge. He subsequently studied in Germany, and was for some time English Lector in Vienna Uni-

versity. Dr. Baildon was the author of several volumes of verse, and this year the poems of William Dunbar were published by the Cambridge University Press under his editorship.

DUNDEE UNIVERSITY COLLEGE. — M. Henri Durlac has resigned the Lectureship in French, and the St. Andrews University Court has resolved to throw open the appointment to women candidates as well as to men.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY.—The late Mr. William Jacks, LL.D., has bequeathed to the University of Glasgow a sum of £20,000 'to endow a Chair of Modern Languages, to be called "the Chair of William Jacks," principally for commercial education as distinguished from classical;' and he has also left to the University such portions of his library as his trustees may consider appropriate and likely to prove useful in connexion with the chair.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY. — Mr. J. S. Smart, M.A., has been appointed assistant to the Professor of English Literature and Lecturer in English at Queen Margaret College.

LIVERPOOL UNIVERSITY.—Mr. R. H. Cave has been appointed Professor of English Literature.

LONDON UNIVERSITY. — Mr. Daniel Jones, member of the Council of the International Phonetic Association and assistant editor of *Le Maître Phonétique*, has been appointed Lecturer in Phonetics for the session 1907–1908.

LONDON UNIVERSITY. — University Scholarships of £50 a year, tenable for one year, have been awarded to W. P. Selver, East London College, for German; and A. C. Wood, University College, and Miss C. M. Bowen, Royal Holloway College, for English.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY.—It is with much pleasure that we announce the appointment of Dr. H. G. Fiedler to the newly founded Taylorian Professorship of the German language and literature. The presence at Oxford of so keen and enthusiastic a scholar and teacher will greatly strengthen the Modern Language Department of the University, which was the last to establish an Honours School in Modern Languages, but which evidently intends to make up for lost time without delay.

Mr. D. L. Savory has been appointed Lektor at Marburg University, and the authorities of the Goldsmiths' College, where he is Lecturer in French, have given him leave of absence for one year to enable him to take the post for that period. Mr. Savory is one of our foremost phoneticians, and will know how to make good use of the unequalled opportunities enjoyed by one who is assistant to Professor Viëtor. We wish him a year of pleasant and fruitful work.

Mr. William Grant has been appointed Lecturer on Phonetics at the United Free Church Training College, Aberdeen.

The Council of the Girls' Public Day School Trust have recently appointed Miss Dorothy Gale, Oxford Final Honours Modern Languages, Holloway College, to Shrewsbury High School.

Mr. H. V. Janau, French master, Central Secondary School, Birmingham, has been appointed French master in the Secondary Day School for Boys at Battersea Polytechnic, S.W.

It is gratifying to learn that the Croydon Education Committee has decided to give £10 each to two language teachers from Croydon Secondary Schools to go abroad for a month and stay in the country whose language they teach.

PROFESSOR A. V. SALMON, Président de la Fédération des Comités de l'Alliance Française dans les Iles Britanniques, 54, Western Elms Avenue, Reading, prie les

personnes qui ont suivi en 1907 ou antérieurement l'un quelconque des Cours de Vacances organisés en France sur les côtes de la Picardie, de la Normandie ou de la Bretagne, de vouloir bien entrer en communication avec lui et de lui envoyer leur adresse.

♣ ♣ ♣

In the *Revue Universitaire* an Inspector-General sums up from numerous reports the results that have been obtained since the introduction of the reform method. As to the reality of the progress effected unanimity is complete. 'The general impression of the examiners is good,' writes Inspecteur d'Académie X—— in his report that he addresses to the Vice-Recteur de l'Académie de Paris. 'We have many pupils,' says a head master, 'who read German and English journals, reviews, and books.' Another states that several of his pupils went for a holiday to Germany, having knowledge enough to converse with Germans from the outset. The exercises produced by candidates for the baccalauréat and the inquiries of the inspectors on their rounds fully confirm the favourable opinion that is generally entertained as to the success of the new method. On the other hand, there are certain reservations to be made, certain drawbacks to be indicated. First of all, a lack of homogeneity is observed in the classes: some of the pupils, owing to natural aptitude or better preparation, outstrip their comrades. Secondly, teachers complain of fatigue, especially if the forms be large. Thirdly, an idea sometimes prevails that grammar is to be neglected, whereas the direct method condemns not grammar, but the abuse of grammar, the learning of abstract rules by heart. Lastly, an insufficiency of literary culture is apparent in the higher classes. M. X—— (Académie de Paris) puts it clearly: 'All, or almost all, the examiners deplore the extraordinary weakness, some the total ignorance, shown by pupils whenever an easy question is put on literary or political history, on the economy, or even on the geography, of the country whose language is being spoken. The unanimity of teachers in regretting this is significant. The study of Modern Languages should not lose on the side of culture what it gains on the side of practical utility.'

The writer of the article goes on to point out some measures by which these defects may be remedied. The lack of homogeneity, so far as it depends on inadequate preparation, might be counteracted if the examinations to justify removal to a higher form were made a reality, instead of remaining, in the case of Modern Languages, a farce. Supplementary courses should be organized for backward pupils. With regard to the fatigue of the teacher, it comes in part from an imperfect mastery of the system. He often proceeds with inconsiderate haste, when he might well employ the first three months of the year in revision and in strengthening the knowledge that is the indispensable condition of future progress. He engages in a dialogue with a single pupil, or keeps up a monologue; whereas collective exercises and general questions are more in keeping with the spirit of the method. But for these defects and for the insufficiency of the teaching in grammar and literature the true remedy is *training*. 'It is to a serious professional apprenticeship, to a probationary stage of pedagogic preparation, to the training of teachers, young, active, sincerely won over to the new ideas and applying them at once with reasoned conviction and with skill, that we must look for the gradual and complete transformation of methods of instruction.' [We have ventured to take this note from our esteemed contemporary, the *Journal of Education*.]

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The arrangements for the display of the Travelling Exhibition at Manchester, referred to in the account of the last meeting of the Executive Committee, are being completed as we go to press. The Exhibition will be on view from October 18 to 30, and a meeting and two demonstration lessons will take place during that time.

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, July, 1907: English Literature in the Upper Forms of a Secondary School (P. C. Green)'; The Place of English in the American Elementary School (M. A. Williams). September, 1907: An Easy Way of Correcting Composition (A. E. Roberts); A Plea for Intensive Teaching (F. W. Grafton).

SCHOOL WORLD, July, 1907: The Teaching of English in Public Schools (J. H. Fowler). August, 1907: The Influence of Inspectors and Inspections on Secondary Education (S. Elford); The Study of Languages (E. L. Milner-Barry); The Teaching of English in Primary Schools. September, 1907: Various Articles on the Scholarship System.

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, August, 1907: The Educational Outlook, as seen by an American Educator (W. E. Chancellor).

SCHOOL, July, 1907: The Teaching of English (S. E. Winbolt). August, 1907: What is the Best Second Language for Englishmen? (G. Shepperton). September, 1907: The Teaching of English Literature in Girls' Schools (M. L. Smith).

LES LANGUES MODERNES, June-July, 1907: L'Enseignement Littéraire (Simonnot, Weill, Varenne, etc.); L'Enseignement de la Langue Maternelle et des Langues Étrangères (G. Varenne).

DIE NEUEREN SPRACHENE, May, 1907: Augenblicklicher Stand der neusprachlichen Reformbestrebungen (G. Steinmüller); The Use of the Phonograph in the Teaching of Modern Languages (K. Breul). June, 1907: Was müssen wir von der Sprechtechnik im Dienste der Stimmhygiene wissen? (K. Steinhäuser). July, 1907: De la Méthode Directe dans l'Enseignement des Langues Vivantes (N. Wickerhauser).

NEUPHILOLOGISCHE BLÄTTER, August, 1907: L'Allemagne vue par un 'Assistant Étranger.'

THE ENGLISH TEACHERS' MAGAZINE is published by a group of teachers, and devoted to the interests of English language teaching in Japan. We have received Nos. 2 and 3, and hasten to give a hearty welcome to our young and most promising contemporary. The articles are thoroughly interesting and practical. Several members of the editorial staff belong to the excellent Normal College at Hiroshima, and of these we have known some who visited England. We trust that we may have the pleasure of seeing more of them, at regular intervals.

EDITORIAL NOTE.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 1st of February, March, April, June and July, and the 15th of October, November and December. The price of single numbers is 6d.; the annual subscription is 4s. The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Modern Language Association who have paid their subscription (10s. 6d.) for the current year. Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 45 (*not* 3), South Hill Park, London, N.W.; and subscriptions to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. R. H. Allpress, City of London School, Victoria Embankment, London, E.C.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45 (*not* 72), Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

R. H. ALLPRESS, F. B. KIRKMAN, MISS PURDIE, AND A. A. SOMERVILLE

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEGEND OF THE QUEST OF THE HOLY GRAIL.

THE legend of the Quest of the Grail is a mythical stream which flows from the far-off country of the Beginnings of Things. In its course through the ages its channel has been moulded, and its volume increased, by the development and accretion of ideas produced by the intellectual forces of different times and different races. The legend has its source in the early Celtic pagan mythology; it is expanded into a great Christian romance in the pages of the medieval romance-writers; in England its romantic grace was embodied in an imperishable literary form by the robust genius of Malory, and Tennyson's idyll has given us, as it were, the spiritual essence of Malory's embodiment of the romances, in which only the most ethereal elements remain.

The earliest extant versions of the legend are the romances of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, in which the story of the Quest of the Grail is recounted as a Christian legend. Consequently, the Quest of the Grail was formerly regarded as in its origin a Christian legend, into which had been woven old pagan tales of a Celtic ancestry; but recent scholarship has established a different opinion—that the legend must have taken its first shape in a pagan environment, and have been afterwards given a Christian bearing by early medieval romancists. The legend, it is considered, sprang from the early myths in which the ancient Celtic peoples expressed their beliefs about their deities and the unseen world of the dead; and modern scholars have attempted to reconstruct the original mythological legend and to interpret its meaning. These are essentially difficult tasks; for, not only is the reconstruction of the pagan legend complicated by the fact that its elements must all be drawn from the earliest Christianized versions of it, but also the interpretation of the mythology of a race's childhood must necessarily be mainly hypothetical. But by a process of analysis of these versions, and of comparison of them with one another and with other legends unquestionably Celtic in their origin, a result has been reached; it has been ascertained that the earliest legend—one which was probably never written, but was handed down by oral tradition from bard to bard—must have contained cer-

tain features. For in all the extant versions of the earliest date there is a hero, generally called Perceval (in the German versions the equivalent is Parzival, and in a later Welsh version it is Peredur), who, after being brought up by his widowed mother in the strict seclusion of a forest or waste land, goes to seek for knightly adventures at King Arthur's court. Later, when he has gone out from the court, he meets with a lame king, who is fishing in a river, and whom he discovers to be his uncle; and then he comes to a mysterious castle, and in the hall he finds the same royal fisherman lying on a couch, because he has wounds which render him lame. Perceval sups with him and the other inmates of the castle, among whom there are generally many maidens, and, while they are sitting at table, a procession passes through the hall, bearing a bleeding lance, a grail, and, in some versions of the story, a sword. Perceval is silent as they pass; and the next morning he finds himself alone, the inhabitants of the castle, or even the castle itself, having vanished away. He meets a damsel who tells him that this magical disappearance is the consequence of his having neglected to ask the meaning of the bleeding lance and the grail, and that, if he had inquired about them, he would have freed the king from his suffering and the land from its enchantments. In some of the versions, the king is waiting to be healed of his wounds; in others, to be released from an unnaturally long life. After long wanderings in an enchanted land, Perceval again seeks the castle, and after many magical adventures succeeds in finding it. He sees the king lying on his couch, and all things happen as before; but this time he asks the meaning of the grail and the bleeding lance, and the king is healed, and the land freed from its enchantments.

In the legend as we actually have it, the meanings assigned to the grail and the bleeding lance have a Christian bearing; but the object and result of Perceval's inquiry as to their meaning is a pagan incident, for it is the magical reversion of a magic spell; and critical research in Celtic legendary lore has led scholars to the conclusion that this Perceval-legend, as I have summarized it, is the original pagan form of the legend; or, if that is too decisive a statement, that it is at least made up entirely of materials drawn from pagan legends.

And these facts emerge from our consideration of the Celtic legend—that (1) the legendary grail was originally a talisman sought by the hero of the tale in an enchanted castle, not for his own behoof, but for the benefit of his kinsmen, the inmates of the castle, who were bespelled until the question concerning the grail set them free from their enchantment; and (2) that a principal purpose served by the talisman was the healing of incurable wounds.

But the grail sought by Perceval was not only a cup of healing; it had also the magical property of feeding every one at table with the food that he most desired. There are instances of similar magical vessels in other Celtic legends.* We meet with a magic cup of balsam, which is prized on account of its power of healing the wounded, and a magic well of healing which will restore to life the dead; and there are other stories of a dish, or cauldron, that contained food unlimited in variety and quantity which was always at the service of those who had the right to feast from it. In some cases it was no mundane boon which was bestowed by the magic vessel, for those who drank of its contents became possessed of all wisdom.

We come now to the question, What is the mythological meaning of the Quest of the Grail in the pagan legend? Modern scholarship furnishes us with an answer which, though it must be regarded as conjectural and liable to correction in the light of further research, is yet of great force and interest. We are told that in solving the problem it is necessary to distinguish between two elements in the tale

* Rhŷs: *Arthurian Legend.*

—one which may perhaps be regarded as the romantic presentment of one of the conditions of the primitive society of the early Celts, and another which is the poetical expression of some of the features of Celtic mythology. It would not probably be true to say that the one element is the external form of the story, and the other its inner meaning; nor, though there are traces of the mingling of two stories in our legend, would it probably be true to affirm that we have in the two elements a purely romantic legend interwoven with, but distinct from, a purely mythological legend. The legend comes from a time when the limits between the natural and the supernatural were very indistinctly defined; when magic was supposed to be of actual occurrence; when the dark deities, it was thought, had their realm half in an unseen world, half in the wastes of earth, and the Celts of Albion, lifting cattle beyond the Tweed and the Teviot, believed that they were carrying away the herds of the ruler of Hades from his earthly realm. Or, at any rate, their poets so represented the matter. But to our eyes there exist two elements in the legend—a romantic, and a supernatural or mythological.

The *romantic* element is the expression of one of the elements of primitive society — the *feud-quest*. The meaning of the grail cannot be considered apart from that of the other talismans, the bleeding lance and the sword, and these are regarded by one of the most recent commentators* on the legend as incidents in a myth setting forth the ideas and customs of the feud-quest. The feud-quest was a custom pertaining to the clan-system, the primitive political system of the early Celts, and, indeed, in its essence to the social organization of many other primitive communities. The clans were divided into septs—groups of more or less closely related families—and when a man from one sept had received injuries from the members of another, it became the duty of the whole sept to aid the injured man's immediate relations in seeking out the culprits and taking vengeance on them. The view that Perceval's quest of the talismanic sword and spear and grail is a mythical rendering of this customary obligation is supported by the fact that one of the extant early versions relates that it was necessary for him not only to seek the Grail Castle and ask the 'unspelling' question, but also to seek out and slay with the talismanic sword Partinal, the lame king's enemy, who had both wounded him and killed his brother. Partinal's death procured the healing of the lame king.

But while the trend of the legend and its details reproduce the ideas attendant on the social custom of a primitive people, there is also a definitely supernatural element in the legend. The Grail Castle is not only the stronghold of one of the warring septs; it has a magical character which does not appertain to the fortresses of this upper world. It eludes discovery, and when, at last, by the help of magical beings it has been found, it is generally situated beyond a river which can only be crossed by a narrow bridge or a perilous ford. This double character of the castle has probably been attributed to it by the union of two ideas: the feud-quest takes the hero beyond the limits of this upper world; the cup of healing by which the wounded king is to be made whole must be sought in the other world—the world of the dead and of the deities who rule over the shades. And thus the lame king is not only the victim of enchantment, but also, as the guardian of the enchanted castle, the representative of the gods of the dark regions of the nether world.

In this connexion it is well to consider another of the Arthurian cycle of legends which bears on the legend of the Quest of the Grail—the legend of the carrying away of the cauldron of the Head of Hades. This legend relates how Arthur and his whole court invaded Erinn for the purpose of carrying away the cauldron of Pwyll, the Head of Hades, the ruler of the lower

* Nutt.

world. Erinn, being partly unknown to the Celts of Albion, no doubt stands for the realm of the dark deities, the world of the dead. The cauldron was possessed of magical qualities, for the fire which heated it was kindled by the breath of nine maidens, and those who might feast from it were sure of receiving the food that each most preferred. A coward was, however, prevented from sharing in its bounty, not by any ulterior prescription, but by the fact that the cauldron would not cook for him.

Now, taken in conjunction with the rest of the Arthurian legendary cycle, of which this tale is an example, the legend of the Quest of the Grail yields a more profound mythological meaning than when it is studied alone; even the traces of the feud-quest tradition assume a mythological bearing. For if we accept the view of Professor Rhŷs, another of our most recent commentators on Celtic legend, we see in the whole of the Arthurian cycle a mass of legend springing from the myths which symbolize the struggle between light and darkness in the physical world. According to this view, Arthur is the Sun-hero, and the quests and adventures on which he leads his following of knights —each of whom must on this theory be regarded as a representative of the Sun-hero—are the mythical expression of the conflict between light and darkness in the natural world. But in the legend of the carrying away of the cauldron of Pwyll, the Head of Hades, the quest is pursued even into Hades, where the powers of darkness reign supreme; and we have seen that in the Quest of the Grail the hero penetrates into the mysterious stronghold of the shades to win the talismans by which the victim of the feudal strife is to be healed. According to the *deeper interpretation*, Perceval, who is always associated with Arthur's court, is the *Sun-hero*, and the feud-quest which he follows is a phase in the dual strife of the powers of light and darkness, and by means of the very talismans possessed by the rulers of the world of darkness he seeks to wrest their prey from their malevolent grasp. The fact that the confusion of two ideas makes the wounded king who is waiting to be healed identical with the guardian of the grail would appear to destroy the consistency of the myth, if it was necessary to regard the two ideas as originally combined in one myth; but we may suppose that we have a confused rendering of two myths, originally distinct, which illustrate different aspects of the same predominant idea.

Such, then, is the origin of the legend of the Quest of the Grail, as far as criticism and scientific conjecture has at present been able to determine it; before we consider its development into a Christian romance, let us glance at it for a moment, with the object of comprehending what elements there were in it which gave it a permanent value—which made it live. It had two main sources of vitality—an intrinsic literary capacity and a principle of moral strength. In regard to the former characteristic, there was in the legend a strong element of romance, which was capable of indefinite expansion in the hands of the writers of the age of chivalry. The quest led the hero into a series of knightly adventures, conflicts with hitherto unconquered warriors, acquaintance with damsels who were sometimes exquisitely beautiful, sometimes rendered hideous by enchantment. He was alive to impressions of the beauty or the barrenness of nature, and valleys and forests, rivers and trees and living creatures, all played a part in his adventures; and over all was cast the weird glamour of magic.

At first sight it seems nonsensical to speak of the moral force of the legend, for in relation to his adventures of love and war the morality of the hero is that of a barbarous age—might is right; the only sin is cowardice. But, notwithstanding, there is an unconscious tone of high morality in the early tale, for Perceval seeks the benefits of the Grail, not for his own advantage, but in order that the lame king may be healed, and the land freed from its enchantments;

and thus the quest of this hero of a pagan myth is a type of noble purpose which can never grow out of date.

We now come to the consideration of our earliest extant versions as they actually are—*i.e.*, to the study of the legend in its medieval form of a Christian romance. We are, of course, examining precisely the same documents that we have already examined; but we are now looking at them in their whole condition, instead of eliminating from them certain elements, and then collecting the residuum in the belief that this represents the body of primitive pagan material.

The earliest versions extant date from about a century and a half after the Norman Conquest, having been all composed about the end of the twelfth, or the beginning of the thirteenth, century, and they are all, with the exception of two German versions, written in French. [There is a Welsh MS. of the end of the thirteenth century, which does not actually treat of the Holy Grail, but recounts legends which bear on the subject.] Most of the French versions were produced in France itself, but one of the most important, *La Queste del San Graal*, was the work of an Anglo-Norman. It is now believed that it was through the Celtic people of Brittany, rather than through those of Wales, that the Arthurian legend was diffused among the North French and the Normans in England; for there is a good deal of evidence to show that what literature existed among the English before the Conquest died out completely for the time, so that, if they had learned anything of the Arthurian legend from contact with the Welsh, it is almost certain that they did not pass on what they had acquired to the Norman settlers in England. It is, therefore, probable that the Normans brought with them the rimes in which the adventures of Arthur and his knights of the Round Table, and the Quest of the Grail, were celebrated.

Now, though all our early versions belong approximately to the same date, they do not all represent the same stage in the development of the legend. *La Queste del San Graal*, for instance, represents a distinctly more advanced form of the legend than that set forth in *Le Conte du Graal*, the work of Chrétien de Troyes. But before pointing out the difference between the earlier and later forms, we may summarize those features which, in a higher or lower degree, characterize all our versions. We have already traced the main outlines of the story of the quest contained in them. We have now to discuss the manner in which the story was treated by the early romancists. In all these romances the writers tried to find in the old mythical stories an allegorical meaning derived from Christian doctrine, or even to regard the legends as Christian chronicles. In the magical vessel sought by Arthur's knights, they saw the cup, or dish, used at the Last Supper of the Lord, and its name became the *Seint Graal*. But the Christian element in the new conception of the Grail did not drive out the magical; indeed, the influence of the old mythology was vividly stamped on all the early Christian romances. Gawain is one of the knights to whom the quest is attributed in some of the versions, and he seems* distinctly to retain the characteristics of the Sun-hero, for it is related of him—and Malory and Tennyson both reproduce the tradition—that his martial strength increased until noon, and after midday gradually declined. In some of the stories the magical defences of the Grail Castle are very elaborate; we read of wild forests and rivers, and lions and magic bowmen; and the Grail is usually represented as in the keeping of King Pelles and his son Peleur, whose names are considered* to be etymologically connected with the names Pwyll and Pryderi, the gods of the dark regions. The custodian of the Grail is also identified with the lame king and the rich fisher, and is portrayed as proficient in magical arts. The *Seint Graal* itself still confers mundane blessings—the food most desired by each participant, as well as the gift of

* Rhŷs.

healing—but the early requirement that those who shared in its benefits should be free from cowardice is widened into the necessity for cleanness from all grosser sins.

But to the old magical glamour was added a new and vivid colouring of mediæval chivalry. The legend of the Grail was influenced by the introduction of a new feature into the Arthurian cycle*—the passion between Guinevere, Arthur's queen, and one of his knights. It is no longer only Arthur's foes and the rebels against him who carry away the queen; there is a traitor in his own household. In some versions, his most trusted knight, Lancelot, carries away Guinevere to his castle of Joyous Gard. The name and character of Lancelot are probably entirely of Norman-French origin; some of the adventures attributed to him are the same as those achieved by Perceval, but in the history of his relations with the queen there is an emotional interest which can have existed in none of the early Celtic legends. The complex character of Lancelot brings a new topic into the story of the Quest of the San Graal. For, in addition to the two knights of maiden purity who see the Grail, and the knight who is pure because his one sin was repented of long ago, there is the knight who struggles to repent and lay aside his sinful passion, and who, succeeding for a while, sees the Grail in the midst of blinding light and scorching fire.

It was this conception of a necessary fitness for the quest which created the difference between the earlier and later Christianized forms of the legend represented in our earliest contemporaneous versions. The changes in the later form are occasioned by the underlying change in moral tendency. The object of the quest is still assumed to be the same; there is still a wounded king waiting to be made whole, still a land waiting to be freed from plagues; but the whole tale comes to hinge on the question of the moral fitness of Arthur's knights to achieve the quest.

* Rhŷs.

In the earlier form, represented by *Le Conte du Graal*, the Christian romancists had been content merely to give a Christian bearing to the purpose of the quest and the main incidents of the tale; and they set down as part of the romance the legendary stories of the adventures of love and war which were the outcome of the crude ideas of a barbarous society which knew hardly any morals, and were coloured by the gross notions of the early ages of chivalry. According to our ideas, the manners of the early Middle Ages were themselves crude, and their moral standard extraordinarily low; but not only was this state of things in itself an advance on the childish* non-moral condition of the primitive Celts among whom the legend of the Quest of the Grail had first arisen, but also, among the more serious thinkers of the time, there was beginning to be a revolt against the immoral condition of contemporary society. So that we find that, in the later form of the legend in those of our early versions which are represented by *La Queste del San Graal*, the crude morality of many of the incidents is played in a new light—the light of dis approbation. A new and more complex ethical principle has been introduced; it is recognized that noble ideals can be completely realized only by those who are themselves noble. At the same time the ecclesiasticism of the Christian interpretation of the legend became more pronounced, and a more definitely eucharistic significance became attached to the Grail.

The form of the legend was so far adapted to the necessities produced by

* But it is only fair to point out that in the Welsh versions of the Arthurian cycle (which, though they are themselves later than the best French versions, are considered to represent an even earlier tradition) the conduct of certain of the Sun-heroes, notably Gualchmei and Gwalchaved (Gawain and Galahad) is depicted as essentially chaste, though this characteristic of theirs seems to result, not from the bard's deference to moral principle, but from traditional mythological conceptions (*vide* Nutt and Rhŷs).

the greater stringency of the new moral tendency that the foremost place in the quest is given in the later form, not to Perceval, but to Galahad, a knight who fulfils the ascetic ideal of purity held up by the Church of the Middle Ages. If we may judge from the Welsh story of a later date, Galahad appears originally to have been one of the heroes in a primitive Celtic legend, where, it is believed, he figured as Gwalchaved, the brother of Gwalchmei (Gawain). His adventures in this legend seem to have been practically the same as those attributed to Gawain; and the chastity which was one of the characteristics of these twin heroes of Celtic mythology made Galahad the natural hero of the romance in its new and more ethical form.

In the Christian romance, we find connected with Galahad a development of the story of the coming of the Grail to Britain, in which is incorporated and allegorized a mass of mythological material. The earlier form of the Christian version had represented the Grail as the vessel used at the Last Supper, and afterwards by Joseph of Arimathea as a treasury for the sacred blood of Christ shed on the cross; but the later form added a more or less elaborate account of the adventures of the bearer of the Grail on his journey to Britain, and of his committal of the sacred vessel to the guardianship of his posterity, from whom Galahad, the knight of the quest, was destined to spring. In one version of the story, it was Joseph himself who brought the Grail to the West; in another, the Grail was delivered to his son Bron, who, with a company of the faithful, floated over the sea on a shirt stripped from the back of Joseph. In the adventures and miraculous properties ascribed to Bron there is a reminiscence of those attributed to Bran the Blessed, one of the semi-divine heroes of the Celtic mythology.

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(*To be concluded.*)

ON TRANSLATION IN THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

A REJOINDER.

I GLADLY avail myself of the invitation of the Editor to reply to my critics in these columns, though, amidst the multiplicity of the points which demand my attention, I am somewhat bewildered where to begin, and I am afraid shall be even more bewildered where to end.

In the first place, in view of the fact that my paper was a counter-blast to Professor Viëtor's uncompromising and revolutionary outcry of *à bas la traduction*, it is gratifying to note that amongst all the able contributions to the discussion from so many different points of view, *one* only—that of Professor Williams—endorses without reserve the capital sentence pronounced by Professor Viëtor; whilst even so thorough-going a reformer as Professor Rippmann admits the use of translation *into* the foreign language in top sets, and of translation *from* the foreign language, as a *regular* part of the work (the italics are his own), at an earlier stage (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 181). With his proviso that it

should never supplant work in the foreign language only I am fully in accord (*vide* my original paper, p. 48, at the foot of both columns). In spite of differences—fundamental differences, if you will—in method, we have some common ground even in this matter, and yet more in others, whereon we can join our forces against such elements as we are agreed in thinking pernicious. That is so far gain.

Neither does the existence of fundamental differences in method, to my mind, render vain the hope of an ultimate working compromise. Granted that the two systems cannot be worked up into a logical whole (of which more hereafter), I see no difficulty in their existing side by side, or, rather, interwoven, each contributing the valuable elements which it possesses to the final result.

In my former paper I made the concession, which I see no reason to withdraw, that were we able and willing to banish English not merely from the French class-room, but also from the whole of the child's life during the period of his education—were we content, in short, to impart the new language at the complete sacrifice of the old —we could not do better than to adopt the Direct Method in its most severely logical application. Several correspondents construe this concession into an admission on my part that the Direct Method is so effective that it endangers the mother-tongue, and that hence my alarm! It *would* endanger the mother-tongue, could it be carried to its logical conclusion. But they flatter themselves. I am in no wise alarmed. My point was, of course, that the only way to implant a new language *independently of the mother-tongue* would be to abandon the mother-tongue; that only one language can have its roots in one's very being, and that every other is necessarily a parasite.

Starting from this same concession, Professor Viëtor succeeds in persuading himself that I have proved *his* case, and not my own. I think Professor Viëtor has been somewhat hasty in setting up his trophy. The superiority which I concede conditionally he assumes absolutely. Because, were it possible to abandon the mother-tongue, and were we prepared to accept the consequences, I admit that the best way in which to acquire a new tongue would be to extend the principles of the Direct Method to the whole of the child's life, to argue that therefore I admit this to be the best method when the mother-tongue continues to be the mould in which the child's thoughts are naturally run—this, I respectfully submit, is not to argue, but to beg the question.

The problems to be solved are essentially different. The learning of one's own tongue is a matter of practice only; the learning of a foreign tongue, when the mother-tongue already holds the field and is daily gaining ground, is not a matter of practice alone, but a matter of practice and comparison —comparison which we cannot avoid, comparison either under the

teacher's intelligent and systematic guidance, or at the hazard of the child's untrained and unreasoning caprice. Whether the direct association, without any intervention of the mother-tongue, is or is not possible at a later stage, there must inevitably in the earliest stage be comparison, which spells translation—either comparison controlled by the teacher or comparison running wild in the mind of the child. Of these two elements in the learning of a new tongue—practice and comparison — the one is chiefly mechanical, the other intellectual. The older method ignored the former, and attained intellectual, but not practical results; the new method ignores the latter, and obtains practical, but not intellectual results, or, rather, to be perfectly just, obtains intellectual results in a less degree. But we want both.

My contention as to the results of the undiluted Direct Method is borne out by such evidence as is available, some of which I adduce hereafter. It is borne out by a recent experience of my own. I had to examine a considerable number of children, from different schools, in oral French. I was interested to note that they fell into two well-marked divisions. In the one the children spoke with a very tolerable accent, in fairly fluent French, but within a very limited range, and with little, if any, originality. In the other they spoke with a bad, but not unintelligible accent, haltingly and hesitantly, pausing to search for the word, but with a good range of vocabulary, give them only time to use it; with greater grammatical accuracy than the first; but, above all, with the light of intelligence in their eyes; and what they had to say was *interesting*. The first bored me; the second gave me pleasure. In the first case it was like talking to well-drilled little machines—phonographs, if you will; in the second I felt mind meeting mind, even though there hung a semi-transparent veil between. Here were the two schools. We want both; but if we can only have one, give me the second! The first were, as I put it in my former paper, 'thinking the thoughts that every one thinks in the words that every one employs'; the second were, I suppose, thinking in English and translating into French. I believe it is possible, by a wise combination of the two methods, to combine something of the spontaneity of the first with something of the intellectual contents of the second.

'But,' say the exponents of the new method, 'this line of argument will land you into the predicament of having to maintain that there is no educative value in the process of acquiring the mother-tongue, which, if anything, is more parrot-like than its systematically-ordered imitation in the new method. We shall be curious to see how you will escape this dilemma.'

Easily, I imagine. I must, of course, necessarily admit the educative value of the process whereby the mother-tongue is acquired. The

child learns to think *pari passu* with this process. The deaf-and-dumb child (unless taught some form of language) grows up little better than an idiot. The moulding of the various conceptions derived from the phenomena about us into the form in which they are expressed in the mother-tongue—a process which is interwoven with every act of life, which goes on during every waking moment, and ceases only with death or senile imbecility—is a fact of capital importance in the intellectual development of the child. Through it he learns to think; through it is created what will be his view of the world.

This process confers on man a truly miraculous gift—the gift of reason — a gift which raises the human being who possesses it, even in the humblest degree, to unspeakable heights above the brute to whom it is denied. Above the brute, but not above his fellow man! The gift is the common possession of mankind, and the process by which it has been acquired does not, unless carried beyond the point which it reaches in the average man, create anything beyond a commonplace intellect; and beyond this point—nay, even up to this point—you can scarcely carry it at school in the new tongue. We do not desire by teaching French to create a commonplace French intellect, such as the humblest French child possesses a few years after having 'found his tongue,' side by side with the more highly developed native intellect, but to bring the intellect, already shaped by the mother-tongue, as soon as possible into contact, not even merely with the more highly developed French intellect, but with the exceptional French intellect. (*Cf.* my analysis of 'thinking in a foreign language,' in my former article, MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 46.)

There is, then, no virtue in slavishly repeating the linguistic process by which the intellect has been moulded in the native tongue, not, at any rate, in the elementary and imperfect manner in which alone this is possible at school; in reacquiring or recreating the stock of ideas which constitutes our mental equipment in another and yet another language; as is the aim of the uncompromising Direct Method. No *educative* virtue, I mean (for that is here the point at issue), as there was in the first instance. When the child learns to express certain uncomfortable bodily sensations in the proposition, 'I am hungry,' he has made an important step in the acquisition of the power of thought; but by pronouncing '*J'ai faim*,' and performing before him a series of ingenious pantomimic acts expressive of 'hunger' and 'me,' until at last it dawns on him that '*J'ai faim*' is another way of expressing the same uncomfortable bodily sensations, you have by no means put him through a process of equal educative moment. So far as any effect upon his intellect is concerned, you might as well have saved your

pains and his time, and told him that for 'I am hungry,' the French say '*J'ai faim.*' The stock of ideas now exists, and the child can learn to re-ticket them in a new language, more readily than he can be brought to re-create them *ab initio* through the medium of another tongue.

To re-ticket them, or even, if necessary, to remodel them a little, for we are reminded by Professor Rippmann that 'no two words really have the same connotation.' The proposition is, perhaps, theoretically true for the most abstract terms (in so far as we admit that these are connotative at all) as for the most concrete. But in practice it is negligible for the terms, whether concrete or abstract, with which a pupil will have to deal on his first introduction to a new language. It is true that even such a word as *boucher* does not summon up the same picture in the mind of the French boy as does *butcher* in that of the English. Neither has any *one* word, perhaps, exactly the same connotation for two minds. Its connotation for each individual will be affected by its denotation. To the English schoolboy (not, of course, to the philosopher) *butcher* probably connotes a blue smock. To Tom it probably also connotes corpulency and a red face; to Dick, leanness, red hair, and freckles. The same applies to more abstract terms. Their connotation will at first be affected by the nearest kindred idea with which the child's experience furnishes it, and the error will be only gradually corrected by growing familiarity with their various uses in the new language—a familiarity which is as open to the child who learns in part through translation as to the other. Or are we to suppose that a classical scholar remains to the end of his days under the impression that every Latin or Greek word is the exact change for an English word?

The sum of Professor Viëtor's contention is as follows: You admit that practice, much practice, in the new tongue is essential to progress; the more practice the better. Then, is not an hour of French, on your own showing, to be preferred to three-quarters of an hour of French and a quarter of an hour of English? It is, at any rate, a gain of a quarter of an hour.

Thus baldly stated the proposition seems very plausible, but let me restate it in the form in which it presents itself to me. Is not three-quarters of an hour of practice in French, during which the pupils have clear conceptions of the subject, communicated to them through the medium whereby they are able most quickly and most clearly to receive ideas—their own tongue—better than an hour of practice in French, during much of which they are groping about in their minds after the meaning of many of the new sounds they hear?

Professor Viëtor traverses another of my assertions: That the shortest way to acquire the power of understanding a foreign text is through the use of translation as an instrument of teaching. Again I must

humbly reaffirm my proposition, and have done so in such precise terms as will, I trust, guard against the misrepresentation to which he has subjected it. Professor Viëtor imagines himself to have refuted my contention by asking the question: 'Which is really the shorter cut, the full comprehension of the foreign text, if only a newspaper paragraph, *at first sight*, or having to translate it into one's mother-tongue in order to get at its meaning?' I never affirmed, of course, that the shortest way to understand a foreign text was 'to translate it into the mother-tongue in order to get at its meaning.' The misrepresentation is doubtless not intentional. It arises from a fallacious assumption which runs through several of the contributions, and as it is no rare weapon in the hands of our friends the enemy, I propose to deal with it at length. The assumption is: Once a translator, always a translator; that you can by no means rise through translation to immediate comprehension. Must we, then, think that Jebb had to translate Sophocles into English before he could understand him, and Jowett Plato? That they never came into direct contact with the Greek mind, never read their authors 'face to face,' but always 'through a glass darkly'? Are we to believe that these scholars could not have read, without translating it into English, a piece of unseen Greek of the difficulty, let us say, *of a newspaper paragraph?* (Professor Viëtor certainly puts it low enough, whether from the point of view of difficulty or of intellectual content.) Did no man ever read a foreign book, before the rise of the Direct Method, without consciously translating? (I insert the word 'consciously' wittingly, to avoid committing myself for the present on the question of unconscious translation.)

I imagine our classical scholars, should this meet their eye, will rise in a body and enter an indignant protest against the cool assumption of some of their modern language colleagues that they never attain the power to *take in at first sight* the sense of a passage of Latin or Greek; that they can never read Homer, or Vergil, or even the more intricate Horace, save through a blurring veil of 'construe!'

I affirm—it is a matter that cannot be decided by argument, but by the consensus of experience—and as my contribution thereto I affirm that the practice of translation from foreign texts can and does lead up to the power of reading the foreign language with as immediate and at least as full a comprehension as any application of the Direct Method. The scaffolding can be removed, and the building stand out as well as if it had been built without scaffolding.

There is, of course, a period of probation; but one would think that a pupil taught on the Direct Method has *Le Charivari* or *Fliegende Blätter* put into his hands the first day and straightway reads them, *pouffant de rire!*

And may I ask Professor Viëtor, supposing he were anxious to acquire the power to understand a text in a language as yet unknown to him, and *that power alone*, for that alone is here the point at issue, would he put himself through the whole lengthy process of reconstructing his consciousness in the new language in the way advocated by the Direct Method? Perhaps he would, for consistency's sake. I wouldn't!

With one assertion of Professor Viëtor I must needs agree. He says: 'It is clear there can be no "curiosities in translation" where there is no translation at all.' I cannot deny it; I must content myself with supplementing it with a few more 'vérités de Monsieur de la Palisse'—*e.g.*, there can be no mistakes in French where no French at all is taught. There can be no mistakes in anything where nothing at all is taught. And, in sum, who never does anything can never go wrong. But '*es irrt der Mensch so lang er strebt.*'

And the child who is learning by the Direct Method is subject to the same human contingency. He is every bit as liable to mistake the meaning as the child taught by translation, only his mistakes remain decently hidden. I recall an instance, quoted some time since in a paper, if I remember rightly, by Mr. Siepmann. He related how he was on one occasion examining a class taught on the Direct Method. The teacher and class were engaged in working up the phrase, *Il le rassura d'un coup d'œil.* The phrase was questioned upon and talked round in the approved style (I am not satirical: I think it a very good style), and finally dismissed as mastered. Then the examiner bethought himself to ask for a translation. The translation came pat: 'He reassured him with a blow in the eye.' Whose was the fault? If there had been no translation there would have been no 'curiosity in translation.' It was all that pesky examiner! Why couldn't he let the poor lad alone?

Of course, I can anticipate Professor Viëtor's reply. The teacher was at fault. Naturally! If the old system bears good fruit, it is *in spite* of a faulty system (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 98). But if the new system result in haziness, it is a reflection on the teacher, not on the method (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 104). Heads I win, tails you lose!

I agree with Professor Viëtor. It was the teacher that was at fault. There was no reason why the error should not have been guarded against by the means at the disposal of the new method, as there is no reason why similar errors could not be guarded against by the means at the disposal of the old method, provided each method were faultlessly applied. But man is imperfect under both dispensations, and time is limited, and such mistakes never will be guarded against in every individual instance, by either or any method. The difference is that translation drags them to the light of day, and permits of their correc-

tion. The other method leaves them decently buried. Hence the haziness resulting from a too consistent application of the new method—a haziness to which the papers contributed to this discussion on both sides bear abundant testimony.

Before I proceed to a more general discussion of the points at issue, I should like to touch upon an old familiar accusation constantly launched against those who have the temerity to enter the lists against the reformers. I mean the charge of laziness and insincerity, of an eagerness to shirk work, masquerading behind the disguise of an advocacy of the old methods affecting to be grounded on conviction. Our preference for old ways is merely our preference for a 'soft job.' This accusation, of course, could not fail to play a part in the present discussion. Accordingly, it rears its head in at least two papers, that of Professor Viëtor, who charitably lessens the charge into one of mental confusion (though even then I would ask Professor Viëtor whether the convenience of the teacher is not *one* of the factors to be considered in any system of teaching), and that of Mr. O'Grady, who, however, courteously excepts 'present company' from its scope. But is it not time that our opponents should discard this envenomed weapon as not being *de bonne guerre?* It is unjust, irritating, ineffective (for it is proverbially not in the stronger case that it is recommended to abuse the adversary's attorney), and lastly, the *tu quoque* is so fatally facile; for amongst the arguments most frequently advanced in favour of the Direct Method is, that it relieves the teacher of the *intolerable burden of the correction of exercises.* Call us then stick-in-the-muds, ignoramuses, incapables, as much as you like; tax us with inconsistency, illogicality; we shall have our answer. But do not call us idle hypocrites. 'Des coups d'épée, messieurs, des coups d'épée, mais pas de coups d'épingles!'

I cannot reply to all who have done me the honour to take up the pen against me in such detail as to Professor Viëtor, but I will attempt to present the rest of my rejoinder under the two heads of translation *into* and translation *from* the foreign language, reserving a few points for separate treatment at the end. I shall refer frequently to the arguments of my opponents which I attempt to refute, and if there is less need for direct reference to the papers of those who have supported my views, they will find that I have frequently been glad to avail myself of weapons which they have put into my hands.

I. I agree with my opponents that we must have conversation and composition *im*-mediately in the foreign language, if any facility in its use is to be acquired, and I agree that such facility is desirable. I differ with them in that I would retain a judicious use of the mother-tongue and of translation, as channels, though not the only channels, through which the learners can be *fed* with the materials for this com-

position and conversation. The problem is to evoke as lively a mental image as may be, and to associate with this image the appropriate word in the new tongue. The most lively image is evoked by the object itself, and after that by a picture of it. But the use of this device is necessarily limited, and is, moreover, already subject to error. If I present an object or picture, what concept arises in the mind of the child? Is it generic or specific? If I present a daisy-plant, is it *plant*, or *daisy*, or *flower*? Who can say? One can easily imagine scores of cases in which the English word is necessary at the outset to prevent a wrong conception.

After the object or picture, perhaps even not always *after* the object or picture, there can be no doubt that the most lively mental image is evoked in the mind of an English boy by the English name. The image evoked by definition, even in English, is infinitely less lively. The image evoked by definition in the *ex hypothesi* as yet very imperfectly understood foreign language is yet more vague, and even if the French be understood shares the liability to error of all definition, for nothing is more difficult, more complicated or more lengthy than an impeccable definition. *Tasse—petit vase servant à boire*, says Littré. Is the meaning fixed? And lastly, the image evoked by talking round an object in the foreign language may easily be so vague as never to take form at all. Neither '*un boulanger est* a man who makes bread,' nor '*un boulanger est un homme qui fait du pain*' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 177), nor even a vigorous pantomime of a man kneading bread and shoving it into an oven, can evoke so lively a picture and with so little probability of error as the simple word 'baker.' They are all useful devices, and all to be used, but they are not to exclude that which is the clearest and at the same time the briefest of them all, *baker—boulanger*. Even when the other methods are preferred it may often be effectively used to check them or to clinch them, and it may often be used with advantage alone. *Baker—boulanger*, and then define *boulanger* in French, and talk round and about it, and present it in pantomime as much as you please to secure the direct association. That is what the old method did not do, and that is why it failed; not because it passed from *baker* to *boulanger* or from *boulanger* to *baker*, but because *it never did anything else*.

Oh yes, I know the boy likes to guess your puzzle and to interpret your pantomime; and use them by all means when you can arrive rapidly at the result, but do not hesitate to vary them with the other method. You want to create the *direct association*? I submit that to harp upon the word *boulanger* when the boy knows what it means is at least as likely a means of securing the direct association as to harp upon it when he does *not* know what it means. 'But the use of the English word will militate against the direct association!' Not a bit of it! Or if it does, the so-called

Direct Method (which in the case we are considering is a very round-about method) labours under the same difficulty, for, as has been pointed out often enough, it does not and cannot prevent the intrusion of the English word into the learner's consciousness. '*Un boulanger est un homme qui fait du pain.*' 'Oh yes,' says the boy mentally, as soon as he understands, smiling with delight at his own smartness, 'oh yes,' and if he is very keen it is odds but he shouts it out at you, 'oh yes, a baker!' You merely end where I begin. Your ultimate term is by no means the unassociated mental concept, it is the outlaw, the proscribed, the banished, the objectionable English word 'baker.' It is like the clown in the pantomime; you turn him out at the door and he comes tumbling down the chimney; you throw him out at the window, and he pops up through the floor.

Translation into the foreign language as a means of instruction, it is argued, is an absurdity in terms, for it assumes a knowledge of the language to be taught. We are all familiar with the argument. It is advanced as an unanswerable dilemma. I have not seen it answered, and yet this precious argument does not merely halt, it has not a leg to stand on: I will match it with another. Conversation in the foreign language as a means of teaching the language is an absurdity, for it assumes a knowledge of the language to be taught. Oh, chorus the reformers, but that is merely a question of graduation. Thanks for the answer. So is the other! The old method failed because it paid little or no heed to systematic graduation; the Direct Method succeeds, in so far as it does succeed—and I have never denied it a considerable measure of success—precisely because it *does* seek to base itself on a well-considered scheme of graduation.

I think, then, that there is room from the beginning (though I might be prepared with some of the contributors to make an exception in the case of very little children), I think there is generally room from the beginning for the exercise of translation *into* the foreign language (for the form I think it should take, *vide* my former article, MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 47), both as a means of furnishing the material to be dealt with *im*-mediately in French, and as a means of ensuring that the pupils have a clear conception of what they are to express in French.

II. Translation *from* the foreign language I have defended both as a means of entering fully into the meaning of the foreign text, and because of its intrinsic value as an instrument of mental discipline. Some deny the former of these advantages and admit the latter, more or less grudgingly, but yet they will have nothing to do with it. 'Get your mental discipline some other way,' says one. 'We haven't time for it!' What if every teacher made this retort? 'It concerns the English teacher,' says another; 'let him see to it.' Personally,

feeling as I do that no subject of instruction in our schools is more important than, if any is as important as, that Cinderella of the curriculum, English, I should be willing to make some sacrifice to play fairy-godmother a little by the way. But holding the—as I think mistaken—view that nothing but the English profits by translation into English, these latter are, perhaps, consistent in claiming that it is none of their affair *as teachers of French*, and I think there is something to be said for the attitude of those who demand that English should contribute of its time to this branch of the work. It might very well be substituted occasionally for paraphrase or essay-writing, and easily could be where the form-master is the modern-language master. I need scarcely say that personally I do not think that sufficient.

But some deny both these advantages. The former I have sought to refute in an earlier part of this paper. The objections of the latter, so far as I can make out, are made either on philological or on psychological grounds. In the first case the objection is to the term 'mental gymnastics' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 175, top of first column), and the ground of the objection that 'the brain is not a muscle.' It is merely a matter of nomenclature, but even as such, where is the objection? As well boggle at the expression the 'rays of the sun' on the ground that the 'sun is not a cart-wheel!' Nay, if we are to take the matter so literally, the only exercise, even of the muscles, to which the term *gymnastics* is at all etymologically appropriate in our country and times is that of swimming. *Et encore!*

But there are also apparently objections on psychological grounds. My 'valuation of translation as a mental discipline' is 'merely the traditional one' (there is much virtue in your 'merely'; tradition does not count in these days, *wir haben's so herrlich weit gebracht!*)—'merely the traditional one derived from a period when psychology as yet existed not' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 171). Presumably, then, recent psychological research has exploded this mouldy tradition! The information is news to me, but unfortunately I cannot claim to be sufficiently abreast of modern psychology as either to feel constrained to bow before it, or yet to be able with confidence to deny it. I can only 'hedge.' Modern psychology may have done so; or it may imagine itself to have done so; or it may have restated the proposition in other and perhaps more exact terms. But I imagine psychology is as yet far from being an exact science; I imagine it is not yet as exact, for example, even as medicine. And yet, how the doctors differ! And if psychology tells me that the practice of translation has not had the effect upon my mind which I feel it has had, I shall no more believe it than if the doctor tells me I have not got the toothache when I feel the pangs shooting along

my gum. 'That's not toothache you've got,' says the doctor; 'it's neuralgia.' 'Much obliged, doctor, but it hurts just as much.' 'That's not mental discipline,' says Psychology; 'it's ——' 'Much obliged, Dame Psychology, but it's just as precious.' I am content to quote against the dictum of psychology—if, indeed, it has pronounced any such dictum — the opinion of all who have had my experience—the opinion of scores who will read these lines. If our fathers, in the old days when a grammar-school was indeed a *grammar*-school, did not derive their mental training (or call it what you will) in large part from this source, whence did they derive it? Purely from boon Nature? Alas! how are we degenerate! But why multiply words? What can I do better than to let the younger Pliny speak for me, in the admirably apt quotation for which I have to thank Mr. Moriarty (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 174). True, Pliny does not *prove* anything. He merely states the case for translation, but he states it so fully and so convincingly that I am content to shelter myself behind his testimony to the views held by men of culture in his own times, and behind the chorus of assent with which I know scores of my colleagues must have greeted every sentence of the extract as they read it.

Translation, we are told, is a fine art, and therefore unfitted to be an instrument of instruction. I admit the premiss and deny the conclusion, for I deny the suppressed major premiss on which it is based. Drawing and painting are fine arts, yet in their elements they find a place in the school curriculum. We do not therefore expect that every pupil who learns to draw and paint will turn out a great artist. But they have an intrinsic value as exercises, apart from their technical value as part of the equipment of a practical artist. And I imagine that correspondent to be wrong who argues that a pupil who can read or 'sense,' however imperfectly, can be 'switched on' to translation at any time (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 174); as wrong as who should argue that a pupil who has learned to appreciate scenery can be switched on to landscape painting at any time. The technique must be mastered in the one case as in the other, and I imagine that the very process of trying to reproduce Nature on paper (and producing 'curiosities in painting' in the effort) is a very effective aid in the development of a cultured appreciation of scenery.

Mr. Kirkman's introductory note to the Discussion Column in the current (October) issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING is very pertinent to the discussion. It is instructive to learn that it is in Germany, the land of its birth, that the reaction against the undiluted Direct Method is the strongest. 'The reaction,' says Mr. Kirkman, 'was almost inevitable. In order to overcome the inertia of custom, a Reform movement is sure to overstep its limits, to tend to extremes,

and consequently to become vulnerable to attack.'

But I am, then, a very good friend to the Reform movement, for it is against this very danger that I have lifted up my voice, almost in the language used by Mr. Kirkman; and it is encouraging to note that the modifications which I have recommended would seem to be on the same lines as those which the experience of our German colleagues, launched earlier than ourselves upon the path of Reform, has already dictated as desirable.

The question canvassed in the German article under discussion, as to whether the speaking, writing, and understanding of any foreign language is not necessarily and invariably accompanied by translation, is one of profound interest and importance. Could psychology furnish us with a conclusive answer to it, it would go a long way towards the solution of the problem before us. The argument advanced by Professor Williams (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 172) would certainly tend to prove the negative, but, be it observed, only under pathological conditions. But we are only concerned with normal conditions. I incline to think that under normal conditions such an undercurrent of translation and comparison does always exist, leaping at times into the light of day; that one language, not necessarily the mother-tongue, but that which may for the time being have supplanted the mother-tongue, always constitutes the norm, to which the other is more or less consciously referred. And, so far from there being in reality any impenetrable barrier between tongue and tongue, not only is the mind, when engaged with a less familiar tongue, dimly haunted by the mother-tongue or its temporary substitute, but even when we are thinking in the mother-tongue itself there flit like pale ghosts through the twilight of our consciousness, or actually into its broad daylight, evoked by the spell of some casual association, reminiscences of other languages into whose genius we may once have lived ourselves.

A foreign tongue that has once been temporarily substituted for the mother-tongue will always tend to reassume its supremacy and again become the norm, in proportion as it is again used to the exclusion of the other, so that we rapidly recover a measure of fluency in a disused tongue even after an hour's exclusive conversation in it, and it does not abdicate its usurped supremacy immediately, even when we resume the mother-tongue, but still, for a while, be it only a few minutes, colours our use of the mother-tongue. There are, it is true, those who, owing to peculiar circumstances, lead a perfectly bi-lingual or multi-lingual intellectual life, and enjoy an equal command of two or more languages. Then no one language is supreme, and their norm, as indeed their actual speech, is a hash-up of two or more languages. They have no mother-tongue, no intellectual, even as in general they have no material fatherland.

I brought against the unalloyed Direct Method the charge that its results are apt to be evanescent. My figure, for which I apologized even before using it, I may leave to take care of itself. It was contained in a dozen words, and was manifestly not even an attempt to reason by analogy, but merely a picturesque illustration. But I plead guilty to the faulty logic with which Professor Williams taxes me in another respect. My premiss was at least inaccurately stated, if not downright inaccurate. Nevertheless, I consider the conclusion to contain a true proposition. I know that precisely that part of the language which I have learned by what is, I suppose, the most perfect form of the Direct Method—daily intercourse with foreigners in their own land in their own tongue—the racy idiom, the colloquialisms, the slang, has a most lamentable tendency to fade when not in daily use, whereas what I have learned by comparison with my own tongue sticks fast. With Professor Williams' permission, I will try to find an explanation of this more in accordance with strict logic. 'Language,' says Professor Williams—and I agree—'is associated with the ideas of which it is the expression.' The Direct Method seeks to make this association, in the case of the foreign language, a matter of pure instinct, and of nothing but instinct, as it has become in the case of the mother-tongue. But this cannot be a mere case of two independent instincts existing amicably side by side; for when an idea is offered to the mind it must be instinctively clothed in one language or the other; it cannot find expression in both at the same time; or, if the reformers argue that it does, they give their whole case away. We have, then, not merely the peaceful co-existence of two instincts, neither encroaching upon the domain of the other, but a conflict of two hostile instincts, of which only one can survive, as anyone knows who has observed the—to the inexperieneed almost incredible — facility with which the mother-tongue can become corrupted through its disuse in favour of another idiom. The foreign language which has been associated with nothing but the ideas which it expresses does not merely *fade* through disuse; it is deliberately *blotted out* by its rival. Of the two conflicting instincts, that which has on its side the reinforcement of daily, hourly usage, nay, the usage of every moment, wins an easy victory. For once that the idea is associated with the foreign locution, it is associated a thousand times with the native one. Never was such a handicap. You flatter yourself you can do something to redress the balance by saving a miserable quarter of an hour a lesson through the exclusion of English (even if that were all gain). As well might Mrs. Partington—was not that the good dame's name?—as well might she have imagined that she *could* have mopped up the Atlantic after all,

if only her mop had been a size bigger! I would, then, add the association with the mother-tongue, an association against which nothing militates but *tempus edax rerum;* for even if two or three languages be thus acquired, no one is by overwhelming daily habit directly engaged in ousting the other. *Auf einem Beine* — Professor Williams really must allow me my metaphors —*ist nicht gut stehen;* better two, even if the second is only a wooden one. Nay, I would multiply the associations to the extent of my power; I would use comparison with a local tongue—say Welsh—where a striking comparison existed; with a dialect, such as Scotch, even with a patois. *Eine vierfache Schnur hält desto besser.*

I have been taxed with inconsistency in seeking to accommodate two antagonistic systems. I am not greatly concerned to repel the charge. *Summa lex, summa injustas,* which I would paraphrase: 'The soul of logic, the soul of unreason.' A logical system, however desirable in theory, is always necessarily imperfect in practice, because, in face of the infinity of factors which go to make up every problem of practical life, and the finite nature of the human mind, it can only be arrived at by a process of rejection and selection, in order to attain a neatly-proportioned and well-rounded-off nominal whole. A chess problem, with only two or three pieces on the board, can be so constructed that all the varieties of position to which it can give rise may be overseen by one mind; but no human mind can foresee and follow from the beginning in all its ramifications every possibility of every move in a game of chess. An infinite mind—in the case of chess even something short of an infinite mind—could, and would play a faultless game and win. But in chess, and still more in life, mere man *muss dem Augenblick auch was vertrauen.* We must steer our course by a combination of logic and 'muddling through,' or, in more dignified and juster language, adapting our tactics to the shifting needs of the hour. When the stars fail us we must sail on a 'dead reckoning.'

I have already (in my former paper) compared the Reform movement with the French Revolution. The French Revolution (*puisque révolution y a*) began with *a priori* constitutions; but the constitutions, though fathered by the logical brain of the abbé Sièyes ('behold him,' says Carlyle, 'instinct with the pride of logic'), the logical constitutions 'would not march.' Our own Constitution—trite, yet true—is a phœnix of inconsistency and illogicality, but it 'marches'!

Those amiable, idealistic, impulsive, logical French friends of ours (thank Heaven for them!) are still as ready as ever to let the experiment be performed for the behoof of Europe, by no means *in corpore vili,* but upon themselves. And so 'the only country in which the victory of the Reform is complete is France.' But even the logical and thorough-going French mind finds

room, and on the whole not ungenerous room, for translation, side by side with the most logical application of the Direct Method (*vide* the interesting communication of M. Ch. M. Garnier, MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING for July); and the reports upon the teaching under the new method, whilst recognizing that it does attain the results which the reformers set in the forefront of their claims (and who denies it?), leave it very clear that it does *not* attain the very results which those of my way of thinking doubt if it is fitted to attain, and consider even more important than the first. (*Vide* quotations from reports in the *Journal of Education* for February, p. 128: 'Regret must be felt that what is gained in knowledge of current usage is lost on the side of general culture.' 'Few authors are read, or none at all.' And, again, *Journal of Education* for September, quoted also in current issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING: 'An insufficiency of culture is apparent in the higher classes. The study of modern languages should not lose on the side of culture what it gains on the side of practical utility.')

In conclusion, I should like to touch on one or two points in Mr. Brigstocke's paper. Mr. Brigstocke, I regret to say, accuses me of 'damning the reformers with faint praise.' I am sorry if my paper left that impression. I adopted many of their conclusions, praised in many cases where they praise, and blamed where they blame; I gave them credit for having largely contributed to bring about such reforms as have been effected by 'their intelligence, their zeal, their confidence in their own ideals.' What would Mr. Brigstocke have? It is true I ventured to call in question some of their assertions. Does Mr. Brigstocke consider anything short of a concession of infallibility 'faint praise'? Or can it be that he thought my concessions ironical? Surely the drift of my paper would correct that impression. A point of friendly banter, such as is permissible between friends, there may have been in my allusion to their 'confidence in their own ideals.' But that arrow was without barbs, for what use are ideals unless you have confidence in them? And at any rate the dart is one they can pick up and hurl back at me with good effect, and I can assure them the wound will rankle no more than I myself intended it to rankle when I inflicted it. We have as much need of their confident enthusiasm as they, to my mind, of our staider criticism.

I dare not protract this already too lengthy paper by attempting to answer in detail all the questions Mr. Brigstocke launches at me. Most, I think, are implicitly answered in what I have already written. But two of them I should like to take up and then conclude.

Mr. Brigstocke's last question, the *fine fleur* of his reflections, is this: 'Are there not thousands at present wasting their time with *oral* work, which they have not time to do thoroughly, when they

should be concentrating their efforts on mastering *aural* and *ocular* work? *Qui trop embrasse . . .*'

The question at least proves Mr. Brigstocke's impartiality, for is not this the very soul of my contention? —except that Mr. Brigstocke is a more thorough-going reactionary than myself, for he would banish *oral* work in thousands of cases, whilst I would reserve to it, if not a predominant, yet by no means even a subordinate rôle.

And again Mr. Brigstocke asks: 'Is there any objection to their (*sc.*, the "revolutionists") continuing to gather facts from experience, with a view to framing some logical conclusions regarding the value of the experiment?'

Heaven forbid! It is experiment we want, not indifference, nor yet the blind acceptance of any crystallized dogma, but abundant experiment by enthusiastic and capable men of every shade of opinion, each working along his own lines, but keeping in touch with the work of others, and willing to modify his views in the light of the results which he honestly thinks them to have attained. When our theories have once crystallized into a hard and fast system, we shall have crying need of another generation of reformers, and the more nearly the adoption of the set system approaches to universality, as in the past it almost completely did, the greater the 'intelligence, the zeal, and the confidence in their own ideals,' which our new red revolutionaries will need to bring to the attack. But again, though they may destroy unaided, they will need the co-operation of all elements in the work of reconstruction.

'And thus in perpetual abolition and reparation, rending and mending, with struggle and strife, with present evil and the hope and effort towards future good, must the Constitution, as all human things do, build itself forward.'* And amongst all human things is included the new method of Modern Language Teaching, of which we are in search.

ALBERT G. LATHAM.

WORDS OR PICTURES?

THE recent discussion upon the place of translation in language teaching has, at all events, shown that unity of opinion upon the question is at present impossible. The prevailing divergency of views seems to result not only from differences of opinion respecting the ultimate aim of language teaching, but even more from vagueness of theory with regard to the first principles on which reform methods are based. 'The whole process of learning is intuitive;' 'the pupil must move in the foreign language;' 'Direct Connection must be established.' Before further progress can be made, we want to know what

* Carlyle's *French Revolution*, vol. i., book vi., chap. i.

psychological processes are implied by the statements above quoted.

Mr. R. A. Williams advises the teacher to go back to his own experience, and ask himself how he learned a foreign language. It is probable that the psychological experiences of individuals might, if they were analysed, be found widely divergent. One of the first questions which presents itself is an inquiry whether we think in pictures or in words. Here one is forced to risk the 'moi haïssable' and to give one's own experience. I myself, and I believe the majority of educated men, think in words, and, moreover, in printed words; the writer of fiction probably thinks in pictures, but only for his own purposes. All whose business in life is concerned with habitual reading and writing tend to become word-thinkers. In learning a foreign language, I am now unable to remember a word unless I know how it is spelt. I may hear it fifty times in conversation with a foreigner, but until I can visualize its spelling, rightly or wrongly, before my 'mind's eye,' a new word will not stay with me as a permanent possession. In this connexion it would be interesting to know what mental process is involved when a pupil or master solves problems in mental arithmetic; most of those with whom I have discussed the subject admit that they visualize the figures in their proper order, probably as a blindfold chess-player will visualize the board.

Teaching experience inclines me to believe that pupils must be either thinkers in words or pictures, and that a larger number than is commonly supposed think in words. I have occasionally, in teaching French or German, refrained from putting a new word on the board, and boys who could have had not the smallest doubt of its pronunciation or connotation have come at the close of the lesson to inquire how it was spelt. They were apparently not easy in their minds until they could visualize the printed symbols. I have seen boys write down a word under such circumstances in order that they might the more easily visualize it.

Now, a mind of this type will find the 'Direct Connection' more difficult than a picture-thinker. For him, translation, conscious or subconscious, will be a continual process in the business of learning a language; the assumed axiom that the sentence is the unit of language in reform method teaching will hardly apply in his case. If you explain to the pupil '*un boulanger est un homme qui fait du pain*,' he 'has visualized a man making bread before he has thought of the word "baker"' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, October, 1907, p. 177). Has he? I am inclined to suspect that a certain proportion of cases are busy visualizing words before they can go any further.

This tendency might, of course, be checked by refusing to use books or blackboard, and relying

upon the spoken word alone. We should then be approaching more nearly to the natural or 'mother's knee' type of language-learning, a condition of affairs which can never be exactly reproduced in our class-rooms. But to check the tendency to think in words would, in my opinion, be a very retrograde step; the whole tendency of education is to induce word visualization, and it is hard to conceive that continual association with pens and books can encourage picture-thinking. This, in my opinion, is the reason why the instruction of very junior forms should be almost entirely oral—not because they can only write with difficulty, but because they can still think in pictures. On the other hand, a form in which the average age is thirteen or fourteen, and which is beginning German, requires a different method of teaching, adapted to maturer habits of dealing with words and phrases.

If these statements are in any way correct—and no one would be more interested than myself to hear that they are wrong—the place of translation in Modern Language Teaching will require some reconsideration. Methods which are admirable for a junior form, with an average age of eight and a half or nine, might well involve waste of time when applied to boys of fourteen or fifteen. In the latter case, I should see no harm in writing a word on the board, telling the form the meaning, and proceeding to practise them in its use until they have appropriated it. To teach a new word by association with words already known will please and interest the form by giving them a further sense of power and mastery of the language they are learning, and is doubtless the method generally adopted. But 'Direct Connection' in such cases is extremely doubtful to my mind. At later stages, all that is needed is sufficient practice in the use of new words; the psychological reasons for this necessity have been explained in Mr. Atkinson's excellent article in Vol. II., No. 2, of this periodical, and need no further statement here.

The problem, then, which seems to require solution before any general agreement upon methods of language teaching will be secured is this: Does the learner think in pictures or in words? And if, as a result of previous training, congenital incapacity, or other reasons, he is inclined to think in words, is it either possible or desirable to make him think in pictures? Is it reasonable to assume that a thinker in words requires a method of instruction somewhat different from that which may meet the needs of a thinker in pictures? Inquiry upon the subject can only proceed by way of experiment and interchange of experience; meanwhile I am inclined to support Bacon's dictum, *Verba*—and not phrases or sentences—*tesseræ notionum.*

H. J. Chaytor.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE ordinary monthly meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, October 26.

Present: Mr. Somerville (Chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Batchelor, Mr. Milner-Barry, Miss Partington, Messrs. Payen-Payne, Rippmann, Storr, Twentyman, and Bridge (Hon. Sec.).

Apologies for absence were received from Dr. Edwards, Mr. Kirkman, Miss Morley, Professor Robertson, and Miss Purdie.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The acceptances for the Committee on the Training of Modern Language Teachers, as announced in another column, were reported.

The Finance Sub-Committee made its first report, and its recommendations were considered in connexion with the subjects to which they referred.

It was agreed that the catalogue of French texts made by Miss Purdie should be printed in sections in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, and that the General Committee should be asked to reconsider its resolution that a catalogue of all French class-books should be drawn up.

Further arrangements were made for the Annual General Meetings, details of which will also be found elsewhere.

Mr. Payen-Payne called attention to some deficiencies in the regulations for the oral part of the examination in Modern Languages in the Oxford Locals, and moved that a letter be written to the Secretary to the Delegacy asking that better arrangements might be made. This was seconded by Mr. Storr and agreed to.

The following new members were elected:

P. Cahill, National School, Garrynageragh, Dungarvan, Co. Waterford.

Miss Hobley, Grammar School, Ulverston.

A. Kahn, M.A., Camden Secondary School, N.W.

F. R. Squire, M.A., Grammar School, Drax.

A letter was read from the Director of the Société d'Échange International des Enfants, thanking the Association for its assistance in effecting exchanges, and stating that the number of exchanges between English and French families had considerably increased.

The accounts of the MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, supplied by the Editor, were presented, and showed that the deficit on the year's working to be met by the guarantors was £38 2s. 1d., which was less than the deficit of the preceding year.

THE Annual General Meeting will be held at Queen's College, Harley Street, London, W., on Tuesday and Wednesday, January 7 and 8, 1908. The presidential address will be delivered by Mr. F. Storr at noon on Tuesday. The papers so far arranged for are as follows: 'Increasing Neglect of German in English Schools,' by Mr. Milner-Barry; 'The Use of French Plays and Songs in Schools,' by Miss Purdie; and 'Modern Language Work in the West Riding,' by Miss C. M. Matthews. Mr. Kirkman will open a debate on the place of translation in Modern Language Teaching, and will briefly sum up the discussion on the subject in the columns of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. The results of the inquiry into the conditions of Modern Language Teaching in schools will be reported, and negotiations for other papers are in progress. The social functions in connexion with the meeting will be a gathering of members and their friends at Queen's College on the evening of Monday, January 6, and a dinner at the Holborn Restaurant (tickets 6s. each) on Tuesday, January 7. Those who wish to be present on either of these two occasions are requested to apply for tickets to the Hon. Secretary, 45, South Hill Park, Hampstead, N.W. No reply postcards will be sent out this year. Finally, members are requested to note that a full agenda paper will be posted

with the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

Eight members of the General Committee retire by rotation at the end of the year, and two have resigned. Under the new rules, those who retire by rotation are not eligible for re-election till after the lapse of a year. Nominations to fill these ten vacancies are invited, and must be sent to the Hon. Secretary before December 1. Any member of the Association, not a member of the General Committee, can be nominated. Voting-papers will be posted to all members with the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

The Rev. E. S. Roberts, Master of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge, and Vice-Chancellor of the University, has kindly agreed to act as Chairman of the Committee on the Training of Modern Language Teachers. The following have accepted seats on the Committee: Professor Baker, Mr. Barlet, Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, Dr. Breul, Professor Fiedler, Professor Findlay, Mr. H. T. Gerrans, Mr. A. Kahn, Mr. W. G. Lipscomb, Miss Lowe, Mr. Milner-Barry, Miss Pope, Miss Powell, Miss Purdie, Professor Rippmann, Mr. Somerville, Mr. Storr, and Professor Welton.

Professor Rippmann's course of five lectures on Phonetics for Teachers will be delivered on Tuesday, December 31, to Saturday, January 4, inclusive, at Queen's College, 43, Harley Street, W. Each lecture will be of one and a half hours' duration, and will include practical work. The number of students at the lectures will be limited to twenty. The fee for the course is 5s. for members of the Association, and 10s. for others. Applications, with which the fee should be remitted, must be made to the Hon. Secretary before December 15.

Sir William Mather, Chairman of the British Education Section of the Franco-British Exhibition, which is to be held in London next year, appeals through the press to educationists to assist in making the section a success. He says that the object of his Committee is to present as full and typical a representation as possible of British education in all its grades, from the infant school to the University. There will be a French section side by side with the British, and strenuous efforts are being made by the French Committee to make this complete. Sir William Mather hopes that the Exhibition will do much to stimulate popular feeling for education. Full information about the section may be had from the Organizing Secretary, Mr. G. R. B. Loch, 56, Victoria Street, S.W.

The Travelling Exhibition has now been formed. It contains about 270 books, arranged under the following heads:

A. Pronunciation and Phonetics.
B. Courses and Methods.
C. Reading Books for Beginners.
D. Texts.
  (1) With exercises for translation into French.
  (2) With reform exercises, questionnaire, etc.
  (3) With English notes and vocabulary.
  (4) Without vocabulary.
E. Reading Books in Science.
F. Reading Books in French History and Geography.
G. Reading Books in French Life and Ways.
H. French Plays for Schools.
K. Books of French Songs.
L. Poetry and Prosody.
M. Books of Extracts.
N. Grammars and Unilingual Dictionaries.
O. Composition.
P. Commercial French.
Z. Books on Method, including French and German Books.

In addition to the books, there are a number of wall-pictures for use with some of the 'Courses,' and some sound-charts.

The work of forming the Exhibition being very considerable, it has been found

necessary to confine it to French this year. If the scheme proves useful, German will be included next year. An account of the arrangements made for the display of the Exhibition at Manchester, and the meetings held there, will be found below. Here it is only needful to add that, if the Exhibition is to attain the end for which it was formed, it is desirable that it should be kept moving about the country, and Local Secretaries and others are therefore invited to suggest dates when the collection might be conveniently shown at their centres.

THE MANCHESTER MEETING.

THE Modern Language Exhibition commenced its career at Manchester, where it was on view from October 18 to October 29, at College House School, Brunswick Street. To explain its objects a meeting was held on Friday evening, October 18, at the University. Professor Findlay, who presided, having welcomed those present.

Mr. Bridge, in the course of a short speech, pointed out how fortunate the Modern Language Association had been in securing the kindly co-operation of the Teachers' Guild, without which it would have been almost impossible to arrange a meeting. There was at the present day a great multiplicity of societies dealing with various branches of educational work, and it was very desirable that they should sometimes co-operate with each other. Their best thanks were due to Professor Findlay and Miss Nuttall. The object of the Exhibition was to show teachers what the best books and apparatus for Modern Language Teaching were. It was quite catholic, and included all books that were at all modern, from those that favoured the advanced Reform to those that sought to make a compromise between the old and new methods; but they were all intelligent, and all dealt with French life. They were greatly indebted to the publishers, who had generously supplied all the volumes free of charge. Having briefly referred to the various sections of books in the Exhibition, Mr. Bridge concluded by insisting on the necessity of introducing our pupils to the best French and German literature, if our Modern Language Teaching is ever to hold its rightful place in secondary education as a means for humanistic teaching, a sentiment which was warmly applauded.

Professor Findlay, speaking on the Reform Movement, said it was due to two chief causes: first, a general dissatisfaction with our methods of teaching foreign languages, both in this country and other countries; and secondly, the fact that this dissatisfaction gave rise in France and Germany to a group of Reformers, the chief of whom were Viëtor and Passy. These latter had in their turn been preceded by students of language, such as Sweet and Ellis, whose researches had prepared the way for the Reform. The leaders of this movement were all 'whole-hoggers,' but in this country he feared the 'whole-hoggers' were not in the majority. A certain amount of progress had, however, been made; but it seemed to him that we should not now progress much further until certain psychological questions connected with language study had been settled. We were not yet certain as to the extent to which the foreign language might replace English throughout the Modern Language Teaching of the school, because we did not yet know exactly what took place when a person suddenly ceased to speak one language and commenced to speak another—what would happen, for example, if he were suddenly to cease to speak English and to commence speaking some other language that he knew, such as German. It seemed to him that it was towards the study of these questions that the Reform must now move, and nothing further could be done until these problems had been solved.

Mr. Twentyman defended the study of

modern languages as against classics, mathematics, and science. He pointed out that the study of modern languages was in any case a necessity, since we could not afford to remain isolated in the modern world; it was necessary for us to remain in touch with other *Kulturländer*, a thing we could not do without learning their languages.

Mr. Lipscomb defended the use of a French-French or German-German dictionary as against English notes; the latter were generally, he thought, quite superfluous, and, in any case, any information that was necessary could be conveyed in the foreign language. English notes in a French book only served to distract a boy's attention from the thing he wanted to learn, which was the French language. He would have liked to see in the Exhibition some foreign books suitable for the school library.

Some other speakers having contributed to the discussion, the meeting was concluded with votes of thanks.

In connexion with the Exhibition two demonstration lessons were given at the Girls' High School, Manchester—one by Miss Nuttall, with a class from the Girls' High School; the other by Mr. Kittson, with a class from Bolton Grammar School. Both lessons were followed by discussions, at which Professor Findlay presided.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE PLACE OF TRANSLATION.

I have been much interested in the discussion on the place of translation in Modern Language Teaching, but there is one aspect of the matter to which I should like to draw attention.

It is contended that translation from one language to another, with all its undoubted mental training, may be left to the top forms of a school; but is this dealing fairly with the large mass of boys who leave school without reaching the highest forms at all? The old method of teaching classics had the defect that such boys were not considered. The course of study was too often arranged, not to suit them, but so as to sort out the boys who would be likely to profit by the highest instruction and would get scholarships—a circumstance which has exercised a baneful influence on, and has produced revolt against, the teaching of classics. Is there not a danger of Modern Language teaching getting into disrepute if the mental training side is minimized? It must be remembered that the large class of boys of whom I speak will have forgotten, a year or two after leaving school, their modern languages, just as they forget their classical languages; and if mental training has not been a serious item in their education, what is the benefit that they will have gained for the work of life? It cannot be too strongly stated that boys do not as a rule require, and will not keep up, their ordinary language studies; what they do require is a mind trained in the use of words. It may be regrettable that boys leave school early, but school teaching cannot ignore the facts of school life.

I write this as one who has actively promoted reform methods, because it is ridiculous to teach a modern language without full regard to pronunciation, and because they produce interest where before there was often boredom.

A. T. Pollard.

24, Harley Street, W.,
October 19, 1907.

Having followed with great interest the discussion on 'The Place of Translation,' I should like, as an outsider, to point out that the difference in opinion between the various experts is far more apparent than real. The conclusion of the whole matter

seems to me to be briefly this: If the aim of teaching is to promote intelligent and fluent reading of the foreign language—it is no mean aim—then translation should be used very sparingly, and chiefly as an occasional test (see the conclusion of Professor Rippmann's remarks); but if the aim is to turn out a scholar, or even to instil into the learner notions of accuracy, taste, and literary insight (see Mr. Moriarty's remarks), then translation both into and from the foreign language is indispensable. The question, then, is really one of aims, and not of methods.

ARTHUR TILLEY.

KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE,
October 21, 1907.

TO TEACHERS OF GERMAN.

I am attempting to compile some statistics with regard to the study of German in the United Kingdom. May I appeal, through your columns, to members of the M.L.A. who are teaching in secondary schools to supply me with the total number of pupils in their schools, and the total number of those receiving instruction in German? The name of the school and the two totals, communicated to me on a postcard, would prove very helpful in providing a tabular statement which would be available for future use.

E. L. MILNER-BARRY.

LITTLEDEAN,
BERKHAMSTED,
November 4, 1907.

CENTRAL WELSH BOARD EXAMINATIONS.

WE have before us the Senior and Junior French Papers set by the above body in July, 1907. Complaints have reached us with respect to these papers, and we are bound to say that they are justified. In the first place, the form of several of the questions leaves much to be desired. In the Senior Paper we have, for instance:

Exemplify the force of the French 'à' in translating English compound nouns.

Illustrate by means of short sentences three different uses of the genitive 'en.'

Now, it is quite possible for a candidate to make no mistake, either in translating or using orally sentences exemplifying the use of *à* and *en*, and yet to be unable to give satisfactory answers to the above questions, which are admirably designed to prevent the candidate showing what he does know. We have seldom seen worse questions, and the fact that they were set to candidates aged fifteen to sixteen makes them still less excusable. Both papers are throughout too difficult. We are not surprised to hear that they proved particularly devastating. It is reported that one school had twelve junior candidates who lost their certificates by failing to pass in these papers, and these papers only.

We have also before us the syllabus for Lower Honours and Higher Honours in French, and a fairly startling production it is. For Lower Honours, besides the elements of historical French grammar, 'especially the phonological history of the more common French words derived from Latin,' and the ordinary translation and composition, the candidates, aged presumably about seventeen, are expected to take French literature, with a *special study* of the following:

Voltaire: 'Alzire.' Rousseau: 'Lettre sur les Spectacles.' Diderot: 'Extraits.' Marivaux: 'Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard.' Lanson: 'Lettres choisies du XVIII^e^ Siècle.' Faguet: 'Politique comparée de Voltaire, Rousseau, et Montesquieu.'

The German examiner is less exacting. He only asks for a study of Schiller's life and works, with a *special study* of Wilhelm Tell and the ballads.

Both the French syllabus and standards require revision.

REVIEWS.

Jespersen - Rodhe, Engelsk Läsebok för Realskolan. Phonetic transcription by G. E. Fuhrken. Stockholm: C. E. Fritze. Pp. vii+167. 2 kr. 50 öre.

To anyone who is interested in the pronunciation of English, a perusal of this book may be recommended. The reading matter of the text transcribed is very well selected, and the transcription is as careful as was to be expected from so sound a phonetician as Mr. Fuhrken. As yet there are few books of this kind, but there can be no doubt that the growing interest in the living language will lead to a suitable supply.

The Sounds of the French Language. By Paul Passy. Translated by D. L. Savory and D. Jones. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. Crown 8vo., pp. viii+134. 2s. 6d.

This book will, we think, meet with a warm welcome both in England and America, for it is not a mere translation of M. Paul Passy's well-known *Sons du Français*, which has passed through six French editions in twenty years. Many hints have been added, intended specially to meet the difficulties of English students. There are also alterations and additions on secondary points. It may therefore, as M. Paul Passy says in his preface, be considered, to all intents and purposes, as a seventh edition of the book. The translators' names are sufficient guarantee that the translation has been carefully done. The book is well printed and amply illustrated. It should prove invaluable to all English-speaking teachers of French, and we wish it the success it deserves.

Cent Poésies Enfantines. Recueillies et mises en transcription phonétique par Daniel Jones. Leipzig: Teubner, 1907. Pp. vi+106. M. 1.80.

The poems are very well selected and excellently transcribed, the type being particularly clear and suitable for young learners. The transcribed text is very amusingly illustrated by E. M. Pugh. The pictures are a little rough in treatment, but children will not mind this, and the artist's sense of humour they will readily appreciate. The ordinary spelling is given at the end.

Deutsches Lesebuch in Lautschrift. Von Wilhelm Viëtor. Leipzig: Teubner, 1907. Pp. xvi+158. 3s.

We have pleasure in drawing the attention of our readers to this excellent book, of which the third edition has just appeared. Those not already familiar with it may like to know that it contains a very good selection of simple *Lesestücke* in prose and verse, with the phonetic transcript on the opposite pages. It is a great thing to have a book for class use prepared by Professor Viëtor.

Molière: La Jalousie du Barbouillé; Le Médecin Volant. With Preface, Glossary, etc., by Frederic Spencer. Dent, 1907. Pp. x+69. 1s. 6d. net.

All lovers of Molière are grateful to Dr. Spencer for his Temple Molière, and welcome every fresh addition. The latest consists of the two short plays that have survived from his early attempts. They are unsuitable for reading in school, for they are rather free in tone; but to the student they are very interesting: dramatized *fabliaux*, with here and there a foretaste of what we regard as characteristically Molièresque.

De l'Angleterre, par Madame de Staël (from '*Considérations sur la Révolution Française.*') Edited with Historical Notes, Exercises in Translation, etc., by W. G. Hartog. Arnold's Advanced French Series. London, 1907. Pp. xiii+126 (92 pp. text, 22 pp. notes, 12 pp. exercises). Price 1s. 6d.

A good feature of this edition is the setting of one or two themes for free composition on the subject-matter of each chapter, *e.g.*, *Quels sont les principaux traits d'analogie entre la révolution d'Angleterre et celle de France? Tracer à façon de Mme de Staël un portrait de la société dans la ville que vous habitez.*

Some teachers may also find useful the extracts from Macaulay, Hume, Hallam, etc., chosen with a view to resemblance in subject-matter, one of which, about a page in length, is appended to each chapter for translation into French.

The historical notes, especially those on English history, strike us as overdone. What an indictment against history-teaching in our schools is suggested by the presence of the following: '*Les Anglais depuis* 1688. This is the date of the Revolution in England and of the accession of William of Orange.' '*Réunissait les droits des York et des Lancastre.* The following diagram shows this. . . . '*Le premier roi de la maison de Stuart.* James I., son of Mary, Queen of Scots'! It is to be hoped that this book will not fall into the hands of an intelligent *Primaner*, or his estimate of his English compeer's attainments will be even lower than at present.

All through the notes it seems to be assumed that English history is being studied rather than the French language. Probably this points to an error in the choice of subject-matter; would not our pupils be better employed, in their French lesson, in studying a work on France?

The preface gives a concise account of the life of Mme de Staël, but such sentences as, 'Their mutual feelings turned to violent hatred,' 'She has given an endless subject to the ablest critics of France,' suggest to the reviewer's mind a hasty translation from some authority in a foreign tongue. The notes, too, are not free from solecisms: 'An institution agreeable to the middle classes *and to which* he began to grant a voice;' 'one of the most conspicuous figures . . . *and in whom*;' 'in a later edition more than a hundred alterations in the reigns of the first two Stuarts were made by Hume himself, *and all to the Tory side*;' 'he was *the attached personal friend* of Queen Victoria;' 'representing modern society *in a manner realistic*' (the italics are ours). Blemishes such as these, though doubtless due to haste, should not be found in a book of language work; teachers have a sufficiently hard war to wage on behalf of correct English, not to mention style, and they will do well to fight shy of slovenly workmanship like this.

Huon de Bordeau.—Ogier le Danois. Raconté par S. Barlet et J. Cornuel. London: Blackie and Sons, Ltd. Cloth, 6d. each.

These two additions to Messrs. Blackie and Sons' well-known series of Little French Classics form part of *Les Chansons de Geste racontées aux Enfants.* We have already said, when reviewing *La Chanson de Roland*, how admirable the idea of telling these fine old stories in simple language seems to us. We welcome these two little volumes, which are excellent reading, thoroughly suited for elementary forms requiring interesting matter that they can read quickly, unhampered by notes, vocabulary, and exercises. Though misprints have not been entirely avoided, the books have been carefully prepared, and are a very useful contribution to a deservedly popular series.

Professor Schilling's 'Don Basilio.' A Practical Guide to Spanish Conversation and Correspondence. Edited by Frederick Zagel. Francis Hodgson. Pp. 156. 2s. 6d.

This little book is known to many students of Spanish in the original German edition. Don Basilio is a professor of Modern Languages who undertakes a journey to Spain. The book gives in dialogue form an interesting account of the professor's preparations for the journey. The striking feature of the text is the ingenuity with which the author contrives to work in carefully chosen groups of words and a number of useful colloquial phrases. A selection of business letters is given at the end of the book for the benefit of the ordinary student, for whom Spanish is too often but a means to a commercial end. Extensive footnotes in English, a vocabulary, and references to Schilling's grammar, facilitate the reading of the text. The book bears evidence of good editing, but how much more valuable would this work

have been had the notes and explanations been given in Spanish!

Vivent les Vacances! By Clémence Saunois. Blackie, 1907. Pp. vi+90. Price 1s.

This is a very agreeable collection of 'familiar scenes,' and well suited to the 'middle forms in ladies' schools,' for which it is intended. It supplies models of pleasant conversational French for girls of fourteen or thereabouts. The only section which does not please us is the *Leçon de Géographie*, but we hasten to add that it pleases M. Petilleau, who has written a kindly preface to the little book. Miss Saunois has added notes, in which special attention is given to the personal pronouns, and a vocabulary. The book has several good full-page illustrations.

A Little Book of French Poetry. By Miss B. Scott. Blackie, 1907. Pp. 48. Price 4d.

This recent addition to Blackie's *Little French Classics* contains twenty-two poems, mostly by Béranger, Lamartine, and other writers of the first half of the nineteenth century. With one or two exceptions (what is Pouchkine doing here?) the selection has been well made. The text is carefully printed (but in l. 14 of No. VII. *généreux* should be *généreuse*), and the notes are quite satisfactory. It is odd, by the way, to find Lamartine's Elvire called 'a young lady.'

FROM HERE AND THERE.

Cambridge University.—The Clark Lecturer in English literature, the Hon. William Everitt, will give six lectures on 'The English Orators of the Eighteenth Century,' at Trinity College, at 5 p.m. on Monday, October 29, and following Mondays.

Dundee University College.—Mr. Thomas P. Young has been appointed Lecturer in French Language and Literature.

Mr. Arnold Smith, M.A. Lond., Lecturer in English, University College, Cardiff, has been appointed Vice-master in the Battersea Polytechnic Boys' Secondary School.

Glasgow University.—Mr. Francis Edward Sandbach, Assistant Lecturer in German at Birmingham University, has been appointed Lecturer in German.

Leeds University.—Mr. Barker Fairley, B.A. (Leeds), who took a First Class in the Modern Language Honours School in 1907, and gained a University Scholarship, has been appointed Lektor in English at Jena University. Miss Hilda Thorp, B.A. (Leeds), who also gained this year a First Class in the Modern Language Honours School (with distinction in German) and a University Scholarship, has been awarded the Gilchrist Travelling Studentship in Modern Languages, and is proceeding to Marburg to study phonetics under Professor Viëtor.

London University: East London College.—Miss Anna L. Littleboy has been appointed Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

Manchester University.—Mr. W. B. Selvage, M.A. (Pennsylvania), has been awarded a Research Fellowship in English literature.

Our friends of the Classical Association have again held a very successful meeting, this time at Cambridge. We notice with particular pleasure that the meeting carried unanimously the first resolution formulated by the curricula committee: 'That it is not desirable to begin the school study of two foreign languages, ancient or modern, at or about the same time.'

Manchester Grammar School has long been conspicuous as one of the few large schools in England where German is the first modern language begun. After

adhering to this plan for many years, the authorities have at last decided that the influx of boys knowing no German presents too great a difficulty, and French will in future be the first foreign language begun.

* * *

We have received from l'Entente Cordiale particulars of the special courses that have been arranged for foreign students at the University of Rennes, the first term beginning on November 15 and ending on February 15, and the second from March 1 to June 8. The matriculation fee is 30.25 francs; the fee for the special courses is 20.10 francs a month. It is stated that board and lodging can be obtained at Rennes for 90 francs a month. The association also offers for competition among members of University Colleges of either sex two scholarships of £20 each for proficiency in the French language, the holders of which will be required to spend at least one month abroad. The examination will be held on Saturday, May 16, of next year. Two travelling scholarships of £10 each are also offered. All information may be obtained from Mr. W. H. Sands, 6, Fig Tree Court, Temple.

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, October, 1907: Marburg et ses Cours des Vacances (S. Barlet); The School Library (Amy Barter).

SCHOOL WORLD, October, 1907: Classroom Phonetics (H. O'Grady); The Selection of Literature for Study in the Secondary School (W. Boyd).

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EDITORIAL NOTE.

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EDITED BY WALTER RIPPMANN

WITH THE ASSISTANCE OF

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEGEND OF THE QUEST OF THE HOLY GRAIL.*

THE prose version, known as the *Grand St. Graal*, which has the most detailed account of the coming of the Grail to Britain, is supposed to be the supplement of the most important of the early versions comprising the legend of the quest in its most advanced form—*La Queste del San Graal*. This is the earliest extant version written in England; it is in French prose, and is considered, though not with certainty, to be the work of Walter Map, an inhabitant of the Welsh marshes. Its date, in all probability, lies somewhere in the last quarter of the twelfth century. In the following outline of this romance we shall meet with allusions to the part played by Joseph and his descendants in the guardianship of the Grail, which is more fully described in the *Grand St. Graal*.

In *La Queste del San Graal*† the quest is bound up with the coming of Galahad, and his prowess in faith and virtue. The story begins with the mysterious summons to Lancelot, given by an unknown damsel, whom Lancelot follows to a nunnery. There he finds a youth of extraordinary beauty and vigour, who, he is told, is his son, Galahad. Galahad's mother was a daughter of King Pelles, the guardian of the Graal, and he has therefore a double heritage of responsibility towards the Graal, for Lancelot is said to be in the direct lineage of Joseph of Arimathea. At the following Whitsuntide Arthur's court is roused to expectation of the beginning of the Quest of the Graal by an 'adventure'—the appearance in the river of a floating stone transfixed by a sword, which none of Arthur's knights can draw out. After Gawain and others have tried in vain to wrench it from the stone, the Round Table is served, and all the seats are filled but one—the Siege Perilous, which Merlin made for him who should be first in the Quest of the Graal. The seat is filled by Galahad, who comes clad in flame-coloured armour, saying, in answer to the king's welcome, that he has come to seek for companions in the Quest of the San Graal; he is able to draw out the sword embedded in the stone. His coming

* For the first part of this article, see pp. 193 *et seq.*

† Ed. Furnivall, for Roxburghe Club.

is celebrated by a tournament in the Mead of Camelot; at the feast which follows it, preceded by rending thunder and a bright beam of light, the Graal enters the hall covered with white samite, filling the place with sweet odours, and giving to each man the food that he most desires. Led by Gawain's example, the Knights of the Round Table devote themselves to the Quest of the San Graal for a year and a day, and, to Arthur's grief, they all set out on it. The adventures of five of the knights are related—of Galahad, Perceval, Bors, Lancelot, and Gawain.

Gawain is fallen from the high position which he occupied in the earlier form of the legend. It is true that he is represented as Arthur's chosen comrade and knightly companion, and that he is the first to volunteer to go on the quest; but he is wanting in all the higher qualities which ensure success in it, and is told by one of the hermits with whom the tale abounds that he is too sinful to be Galahad's companion.

Perceval and Lancelot set out together, but they part when Lancelot refuses to return to the high road which they have left. Their subsequent courses are very different, for the experiences which Lancelot undergoes are such as to urge him to repentance from his grievous sin, while Perceval's adventures are all temptations in disguise, befalling him in order that his unsullied virtue may be put to the proof. The adventures of both knights are often to outward seeming very similar, for they are the half-martial, half-magical adventures of the Sun-hero of the early mythology; and their spiritual bearing is divulged by some hermit with whom either knight meets soon after, and who draws out an allegorical meaning of great length and completeness. Perceval's most acute temptations begin with his ride on a black steed, which appears in its true fiendish character when, on their approach to a flood, Perceval crosses himself. It throws off Perceval, and, plunging into the waters, sets them all aflame. Perceval finds himself on a bare rock in the midst of the sea, and there he is tried by fresh temptations, the character of which is made clear to him by an ancient man of mysterious sanctity, who comes to him over the water, and vanishes when Perceval is at last allowed to leave the rock in the ship in which his counsellor has come. During his voyage Perceval is joined by Bors, and finally by Galahad and by his own sister, with whom Galahad has met during his adventures.

Bors has heretofore followed the quest by leading an ascetic life and by succouring distressed ladies; but the adventures of Galahad are different from those of the other knights, inasmuch as he is so pure and his aim so exalted that he is raised above the power of temptation, and is regarded as chosen of God to put down all the bad customs with which the land is plagued.

The gathering in the ship is for a definite purpose—the three knights and Perceval's saintly sister are to set out for Pelles' Castle of Corbenic, where they will find the Graal. But on the way thither they encounter adventures. The first adventure is their meeting with 'Solomon's Ship,' which, it is explained, was prepared by Solomon *and his wife* to bear the sword of David and the three wonderful spindles! The sword of David is broken, and hitherto no one has been found who can mend it, but Galahad is at once able to join together the pieces of the blade. He is to wear it at his side, but he has no sword-belt. Then Perceval's sister brings out a belt which she has made with her hair, and Galahad is girded with it.

Perceval's sister does not reach the Castle of Corbenic and the Graal, for they come to another castle on their way, where it is demanded that, in accordance with the custom of the place, she shall give of her blood to heal the lady of the castle, who is smitten with leprosy, and can only be cured by being anointed with a maiden's blood yielded voluntarily. The knights at first refuse to sanction the custom, but in the end Perceval's sister, filled with the spirit of self-devotion, yields, and dies. The knights embalm her body and

lay it in a ship, and send the ship out to sea. They then separate, intending to meet, in accordance with the dead maiden's behest, at Castle Corbenic.

Meanwhile Lancelot's wanderings have brought him to the margin of a lake, and there he sees a ship, and, boarding it, he finds Perceval's sister lying dead. The ship passes on to a rock where there is a chapel, and there Galahad comes on board for a while. After his departure Lancelot is driven about in angry waters for a whole month, till he reaches a castle guarded by two lions. The lions lie down when he crosses himself, and he enters the castle and finds his way to the hall. But it is empty—all the castle seems to be empty. But from one room comes the sound of a voice singing so sweetly that it appears hardly mortal, 'Glory and praise and honour be to Thee, Father of heaven,' and, approaching to the doorway, Lancelot sees the room full of light, and in the midst the Graal covered with green velvet and surrounded by angelic pomp. A priest is celebrating Mass, and when he raises the wafer the form of a man appears in his hands, and Lancelot starts forward to help him raise it. But he is smitten, scorched, blinded, stricken down, by a burning wind, and lies as if dead. For fourteen days he continues dumb and motionless, but, thanks to the care of an old man learned in 'fusique,' he recovers, and finds that he is in Castle Corbenic. He is taken to see King Pelles, and at dinner they are fed by the San Graal. He afterwards returns to Arthur's court, and a second romance attributed to Walter Map, *Morte d'Arthur*, relates how he again fell into sin.

But after some years the three pure knights meet at Castle Corbenic, and are welcomed by King Pelles, and make ready to see the Graal. At vespers a hot wind strikes the palace, as a sign warning all the sinful to shun the sight of the Graal. Apparently none but the knights feel sufficiently clean from sin to await the coming of the Graal, for all go out, even King Pelles. The three knights are alone, and Joseph of Arimathea comes from heaven and celebrates the Sacrament; and when he raises the wafer, the appearance of a child descends from heaven and smites itself into the bread, which takes the form of a man. It is the Lord, who comes to feed Galahad and Perceval and Bors with the food from the Graal, the Dish of the Last Supper, and Himself to bid them bear the Graal from Britain to the Spiritual Palace at Sarras.

Before they leave Britain, Galahad has one more vocation to fulfil, to heal the wounded king (whom Malory calls Pellam) who had been so grievously hurt by the Dolorous Stroke of Balin, one of Arthur's knights, that only Galahad could cure him, by anointing him with the blood from the lance with which the Lord's side was pierced, and which, having been brought to Britain with the Graal, was preserved with it.

When Galahad has thus made the wounded king whole, he and his two companions bear the Graal away to Sarras, sailing in 'Solomon's Ship.' On their arrival in Sarras they are thrown into prison by the heathen citizens and kept there for three years, but at the end of that time Galahad is made king by the choice of the heathen themselves, and reigns in the Spiritual Palace. After he has reigned one year he again sees the Graal; but on this occasion his perception of it is mysteriously higher and more spiritual than in any of the former experiences of those who have seen the Graal. He and his companions go to the celebration of the Sacrament, and again Joseph comes in heavenly pomp; but at the sacring of the Mass he calls Galahad to approach the Graal, and Galahad draws near and begins to gaze on the 'spiritual things of the Graal,' and while he gazes his flesh trembles, and he prays God to let him pass from this earthly life into the heavenly. He passes hence, and the Graal and lance are carried up to heaven. Galahad is buried where he died, and Perceval goes into a hermitage, but, dying a year later, is buried by Bors in Gala-

had's tomb, near which his sister also lies. Bors returns to Arthur's court.

Such is the medieval story of the Quest of the Holy Grail. It is interwoven with ascetic doctrine which strains, and to a certain extent falsifies, its moral teaching; but this ascetic morality is only the exaggeration natural to a rebound from the gross licentiousness of the age, and it is built up on a great underlying moral truth which holds good for all time. When we reflect that the origins of this legend lie in a mythology which is stamped with the ideas of a race's childhood, of a people among whom might was literally right, we may marvel at the persistence of the theme of the medieval romance—that only those whose consciences are clean from gross sin can apprehend and fulfil a high purpose. We may hear in it an echo of the loftier theme that none but the pure in heart can see the things of God.

We cannot pursue the development of the legend outside our own literature, and can only deal very briefly with its English career. The story of the quest as Malory* tells it 300 years after the appearance of *La Queste del San Graal* is substantially the same; but it differs from the earlier romance in being made part of a great whole which has been described as Malory's 'prose epic.'

In his work, *Morte Arthur*, the legend of the Quest of the Sancgreal is properly associated with all the other Arthurian legends to which Malory had access, and occupies only a proportionately small space in the whole book. But it is a very important factor in the whole work. Malory's great romance is a wonderful book, for in it he has thrown together the miscellaneous legends in such a way that he has made a coherent whole out of them. When we glance into the book, it looks as if it were only a catalogue of knightly adventures, interesting merely as an index to the manners of the time, and sometimes charming in its literary style; but it is much more than that. The book has not exactly a plot, but it has a *motif*. It tells the tale of the coming of the hero Arthur, who came to redress the wrongs of his age, and who formed a fellowship of knights, so that by the individual prowess of each the wrongs of his realm might be righted. As Malory tells it, it is an epic of medieval chivalry, for in the individual enterprise of the knight was the essence of chivalry. But Malory had to tell the tale to the end—an end that it was fitting that he should relate; for he himself lived and wrote just at the period when chivalry as a social system was decaying and vanishing away. Arthur's fellowship is broken up; the order that he and his knights have wrought in the realm vanishes in a great catastrophe of

'fire and sword,
Red ruin and the breaking up of laws.'

To this end three things contributed. It was ultimately due to Mordred's rebellion and to the queen's disgrace in conjunction with Lancelot's consequent defection and the formation of a court-party in opposition to Arthur. But the ground had been prepared for faction by the breaking up of the Round Table by the impulse which bade Arthur's best knights follow the Quest of the Grail.

Malory's literary art is shown by the fact that early in his romance he introduces certain legends out of which he draws the incidents which are the seed-corn from which spring as the harvest-crop the dissolution of the Round Table and the passing away of Arthur's realm. In the first book he touches on a grossly barbarous story in which is related a sin of Arthur's youth—for Arthur is not the immaculate hero of the *Idylls*—which in the end produced the circumstances out of which Mordred's hostility sprang; in the second the Celtic myth of the Dolorous Stroke is introduced, in which Balin, one of Arthur's knights, is represented as wounding King Pellam so sorely that he 'might never be whole, till Galahad, the haut prince, healed him in the quest of the Sancgreal'; in the third Arthur's marriage with Guenever is celebrated.

* In *Morte Arthur*, printed by Caxton in 1485.

Then the romance meanders on its way, and we have tale after tale of the knightly adventures in love and combat of all the different knights of the Table Round. But the three fateful threads are interwoven in the kaleidoscopic mesh of chivalrous romance. We do not hear much of Sir Mordred, the snake in the grass, until the climax of the fortunes of Arthur and the Round Table, when he begins his crafty treachery by procuring the betrayal of Lancelot's infidelity to the king; but throughout the greater part of the romance Lancelot's knightly perfections —for he is the flower of the fellowship— are thrown into high relief, and almost from the beginning we are told of Guenever's favour towards him and his illicit love for her. And about half-way through the romance the episode of the Quest of the Sancgreal comes as the herald of the far-off downfall of Arthur's rule. The quest appears as a new vocation, which is to test those of Arthur's knights who have been most successful in martial adventures, and to prove which among them have moral and spiritual prowess; and the final effect is the breaking up of the fellowship. Perceval as well as Galahad died in following the quest; many others followed wandering fires, and were lost in the quagmire, and Lancelot returned, a little fallen from his high estate, for he had been scorched by the vision of the Grail, and yet had not seen the Grail itself, and he came back to the court to sin again; and we find him telling Guenever, with a species of self-approving bravado, that it was his secret thought of her which had hindered him from seeing 'as great mysteries as ever saw Galahad, or Percivale, or Sir Bors.' After Mordred's betrayal of Lancelot to the king, his life of knight-errantry is at an end, except as he can serve Guenever; and he carries her to his castle of Joyous Gard, and fortifies it against the king, who has condemned the queen to death. In the end Lancelot takes the cowl. But indirectly the Quest of the Grail has hastened his defection, for his unsuccessful pursuit of it sears his conscience, and he hurries deeper into the sin which sows discord between Arthur and himself. The Quest of the Grail has not only broken up the fellowship—it has tested the knights in a great spiritual adventure; and in moral and spiritual prowess Lancelot, the flower of chivalrous knighthood, is found wanting.

This feature of the quest, which is outlined only in suggestion in Malory's romance, is distinctly delineated in Tennyson's idyll of *The Holy Grail*. But there was probably another influence at work in the poet's mind when he wrote his *Idylls*, for in the centuries intervening between the production of *Morte Arthur* and the *Idylls of the King* another great romance of chivalry had been fabricated.

It would not be possible in the limits of this paper to discuss the exact relationship of Spenser's romance to the legend of the Grail, the whole of the Arthurian cycle being only one of the several romantic sources from which the Elizabethan poet drew inspiration. We may notice, however, that the conception of Prince Arthur as the type of perfect manhood was Spenser's own—there is nothing like it in Malory's portrayal of character, whether of Arthur or his knights; and we may, perhaps, see in it the earliest idealization of the character of the modern gentleman, as distinct from the knight of chivalry. But Arthur is only indirectly connected with the Grail legend, and possibly the most undoubted trace of its influence on Spenser's thought is to be found in the general exaltation of the idea of the knightly quest which pervades the *Faerie Queene*, and the recognition of the truth that success* depends largely on the nobility of the quester.

Thus, while the form of Tennyson's romance was determined by Malory's work, the spirit of it, surely, was derived from

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* If, as is sometimes asserted, Prince Arthur is the mythical representation of Divine grace, we hear sounded in Spenser's romance a dominant note of the theology of the Reformation, the inefficacy of moral effort apart from Divine grace specially conferred.

Spenser's great poem. For the Quest of the Holy Grail, while it bears a similar relation to the other Arthurian legends as to that set forth in *Morte Arthur*, is represented in the *Idylls of the King*, not as a crown of knightly adventures, but entirely as a spiritual test calling away men from an active life in the world to pursue an ideal of faith. Much of the interest of the poem lies in the delineation of the character of each quester, and of its development under the influence of his high vocation. In this latest English version of the legend its whole atmosphere is etherealized: the Grail bestows only spiritual blessings; the temptations to which the knights are exposed are subtle rather than gross; the holy vessel has been treasured in no earthly castle, and guarded by no subterranean magic, but, having been 'caught away to heaven,' is thence sent,

> 'That so perchance the vision may be seen
> . . . and all the world be heal'd.'

The ethereal character of the quest creates an intellectual problem, which was no doubt present to the poet's mind, and which finds expression in Arthur's lament over the breaking up of his Round Table. Is it really nobler, 'leaving human wrongs to right themselves,' to seek 'the spiritual things of the Graal,' than to exercise

> 'Strength and will to right the wrong'd'

and

> 'Power to lay the sudden head of violence flat'?

Some of the commentators on the earlier development of the legend regard the idea of a 'spiritual quest' as a piece of medieval monastic egotism, and the original pagan notion of an ultimate philanthropic purpose of the quest as a loftier idea.

But one would rather see in this great romance, as it were, the shrine of the highest and holiest ideas vouchsafed to each intellectual generation in turn. The Celtic myth sets forth the noble element in the primitive ethics of the society of the sept. Outside the sept the savage glory of the hero was in murder, rape and pillage; within it, it was his privilege to seek the good, not of himself, but of others, and his shame was to flinch from an enterprise which might lead to his self-sacrifice. The earliest Christian form of the legend preserved a very similar ethical principle, but it elevated the conditions of the quest; something was still to be sought at the seeker's peril, to heal his kin, but the healing talisman was not sought in order that it might be wrested from the malevolence of the dark deities; it was represented as brought by the servant of the Most High who ruleth above, for the behoof of men, when there should arise one who could apprehend it. It was, perhaps, this change in the idea of the sphere to which the quest belonged which produced the strong moral element in the later form of the medieval legend, the idea that moral purity was essential to success in following heavenly ideals.

But it is this later medieval version which really introduces the element of ethereal character into the legend which Malory reproduces and Tennyson dwells on. *La Queste del San Graal* relates how Galahad sought the Graal in order to heal the wounded king; but when this purpose has been fulfilled we find that Galahad enters on a quest after 'the spiritual things of the Graal,' and dies in the moment of success, his flesh being apparently unable to sustain the ecstasy of true spiritual apprehension.

The commentators on the Celtic myth see in this nothing but the apotheosis of monastic mysticism. There may be some truth in this criticism, but we must, I think, allow that it may well have been the medieval writer's intuitive protest against the mundane ideas which were associated with the Grail. When Galahad saw the 'spiritual things of the Graal,' there was no accompanying odour of sweet things, no contact with hot breezes, and no vision of white samite covering the sacred vessel. We are not told what Galahad saw, for the romancist could not tell what it was; he only knew that it was something that Galahad could not share

with other men, because it was nothing tangible that his senses could grasp.

Is not this the medieval romancist's vague recognition of the fact that the pursuit of the highest ideals is something apart from noble altruistic purpose? It is true that it is only those hearts which are purified by a loving disposition towards others that have a spiritual vision clear enough to distinguish the far-off goal of their purpose; Perceval's sister forgoes the achievement of the quest when she is called upon to give her life for another, Bors is fitted for its fulfilment by a life of devotion to the service of the weak. And those who follow the highest ideals are fitted to serve others, for, like Galahad, they have lost themselves that they may find themselves. But, nevertheless, such ideals as beauty, truth, the knowledge of God, must be actually sought for their own sake, not for the sake of conferring a benefit on others. For we cannot seek to do good to others by means of something which will never lie in our grasp; and the highest ideals 'transcend our mortal doom'—to our mortal vision they are never fulfilled. Even in the earliest myth Perceval found the Grail only in an intangible world of magic and the shades. But in the pursuit of unfulfilled ideals there lies a hope of immortality, and perhaps a suggestion of an immortal power of conferring benefits on other undying souls. Tennyson realized that the Spiritual City where Galahad sought the Grail lay beyond 'the hill that none but man could climb,' afar in 'the great Sea,' and that when he attained to the apprehension of 'the spiritual things of the Graal' he had already passed over *de cheste terriene vie . . . en la celestiel.*

M. C. Malim.

Authorities. — Rhŷs, *Arthurian Legend;* Nutt, *Studies in the Legend of the Holy Grail; La Queste del San Graal,* Walter Map (?), Furnivall's edition; Malory, *Morte Arthur.*

SOME EXAMINERS AND SOME LONDON UNIVERSITY EXAMINATIONS.

'Where are we to find a college of examiners? The training of examiners is becoming as important as the training of teachers.' Thus Lord Rosebery in a recent speech at the opening of the new London County Council Training College. Why does this versatile nobleman always tantalize his audiences with his somewhat cryptic utterances and clever generalizations? It would have been interesting and instructive to have some practical notions, if he has any, on examiners and examining. One wonders whether he has ever used his influence for good in the appointment of the examiners of the University of which he is the Chancellor. If report says true, some of the least successful appointments in the past were made chiefly through his influence.

It is not my intention, even if I were competent, to supply Lord Rosebery's omission, but a little adverse criticism is sometimes helpful. We are all more or less familiar with different types of examiners through their examination papers. Most conspicuous of all is the examiner who wants to find out what the candidate does not know. His stock-in-trade consists chiefly of irregularities and peculiarities. He asks you to dissect and label eccentric growths and fossil remains, while neglecting the normal and living. Closely allied to, if not actually included in, this class is the foreign examiner in foreign languages—now happily becoming extinct—who has not made a special study of his own language, who has an imperfect acquaintance with English, and whose experience in teaching his own language to English pupils is very limited. He can have very little conception of the real difficulties of the English student, and therefore his papers will deal largely with those points that are considered difficult

in his native land. He is partial to modern authors in which unusual words and neologisms are plentiful. Where he fails conspicuously is in marking the English rendering. Almost anything will pass muster. I have met with some remarkable instances of this. The Civil Service Commissioners, I believe, generally divide the marking of their candidates' modern language papers, giving the English rendering to an Englishman. This is a wise plan. Next comes the brilliant scholar, now often met with, who is usually a University professor or lecturer, who has little or no experience in teaching, but who is obliged to supplement by examining work the meagre emoluments of his chair. Probably he will make a show of his learning, if not in his papers, in the totally unsuitable books he will select for the syllabus. A glaring instance of this was recently brought to my notice. Among the books selected for the highest grade of the Central Welsh Board examinations in French for 1907, in a syllabus extensive and difficult enough for the London B.A., figured *Poètes d'Aujourd'hui*, a French 'yellow-back' of some 400 pages, containing a selection of the chief symbolist and decadent poets between the years 1880 and 1900. It would be difficult to conceive a more unsuitable book, and the person who selected it deserves to be pilloried. The language of many of these poets is incomprehensible to most Frenchmen, and often borders on the pornographic. I quote a sonnet, not by any means the worst in the book:

'Une dentelle s'abolit
Dans le doute du Jeu suprême
A n'entr'ouvrir comme un blasphème
Qu'absence éternelle de lit.

'Cet unanime blanc conflit
D'une guirlande avec la même
Enfui contre la vitre blême
Flotte plus qu'il n'ensevelit.

'Mais chez qui du rêve se dore
Tristement dort une mandore
Au creux néant musicien

'Telle que vers quelque fenêtre
Selon nul ventre que le sien
Filial on aurait pu naître.'

Perhaps the *Westminster Gazette* or the *Journal of Education* would give it in the prize column to be done into English, or preferably into nineteenth-century French. Very often the brilliant examiner belongs to the careless and unconscientious class, more numerous than is generally supposed. His chief aim seems to be to rake in fees. He will boast of being able to mark a two-hours paper in two minutes, and will probably tell you that he marks by impression. Marking by impression is, of course, a useful way, and sometimes the only one, but it must be done conscientiously. His grammar questions can generally be answered by single words. These favour cramming and discount intelligence, but are easily marked. Lastly, there is the examiner who is in touch with the best methods of teaching, and who in framing his papers seeks to influence the teaching in the right direction. He probably believes that 'the one useful purpose outside examinations can serve is to direct and improve the teaching.' His questions will test, not merely the candidate's knowledge of the subject, but also his intelligence. In short, he will ask nothing which particularly favours 'cramming,' although 'cramming' of the right kind is often beneficial.

Every examiner knows how the English boy lacks initiative and the power of thinking. Recently an exhibition candidate, when asked (in writing) how an eclipse of the moon was caused, replied that it was caused by the sun coming between the earth and the moon. Though it is surprising that such a type of candidate should be so common, yet what could be expected from the hands of a schoolmaster whom a friend recently saw trying to show two little boys how to fly a kite? My friend could hardly believe his eyes when he saw him, kite in hand, turn his back to the strong wind and direct the boys to take the string some distance away in the direction he was looking.

But *revenons à nos moutons*. When the University of London was reconstituted on its present basis, there was a splendid

opportunity for making new and sound departures in examining, and no doubt the Senate meant well. Examiners were to be appointed who had experience in teaching. Unfortunately, the machinery at the Senate's disposal in the shape of boards of studies, etc., came into existence somewhat automatically, being composed mainly of the then existing staffs of the constituent colleges, in many cases very unfit advisers in academic matters and modern methods. This source of weakness can be eliminated only gradually. Naturally, the Matriculation Examination received most attention, particularly in its English portion. The 'crammer' was to receive his quietus. With fewer subjects and a wide choice, a greater proficiency was to be exacted in order to meet the wishes of the professors, who rightly complained that the matriculated student under the old régime had a mere smattering of many subjects, but an adequate knowledge of none. When the new papers appeared there were great changes in the character of the English paper, but the papers in modern foreign languages continued on the old bad lines. In due course a Junior School Examination and a Leaving Certificate (Matriculation Standard) Examination were instituted. With a change of examiners came a change in the style of the French papers, and at present the French, and to some extent the German, papers of all three examinations are framed on modern and improved lines. It is much to be desired that the Senate should devise some means of having an oral test in modern foreign languages at the Matriculation as well as at the School-leaving Examination. The question in phonetics at present set in the former examination, although it may influence the teaching in the right direction, cannot be an adequate substitute. Naturally, the 'crammer' and those who teach on old methods object to the disappearance of their old favourites. There seems to be, indeed, an agitation going on at present which aims at the lowering of the standard in English and modern foreign languages. It is to be hoped that the Senate will refuse to countenance such a step. As Professor Pollard says in a recent article: 'A University purchases increased numbers at too high a cost when it lowers its standard to renew its size.' We are doing a sorry service to the country if we increase the number of those who wish to enter the 'genteel' professions with an insufficient mental equipment. We should not favour a candidate of the stamp once addressed by a sarcastic French examiner: 'Vous faites votre droit, monsieur, et l'agriculture manque de bras.' At the same time, there is no doubt that the basis of University education must be broadened if we mean to obtain the services of the best intellects of the country. The shackles of medievalism must be shaken off.

If the Matriculation Examination is thought too difficult by some, it is almost impossible for any unbiassed person to consider the French papers recently set for the Intermediate Examination in Arts as anything but ridiculously easy. Here the standard has undoubtedly been lowered. I have a vivid recollection of the cry constantly raised in Convocation, when the reconstitution of the University was under consideration, that the standard of the degrees would be lowered, and that there would be, in fact, two standards. I am bound to confess that there is some justification for the fears then expressed. The French papers recently set for both external and internal candidates are striking evidence of this. Professor Pollard, writing, in the article referred to above, of the amalgamation of external and internal examinations, says: 'There is no objection to such a step provided that the external examination is raised to the standard of the internal.' I wonder whether the vivacious Professor had his tongue in his cheek when he wrote that sentence. Anyhow, 'lowered' would be a more appropriate word—at least, so far as French is concerned. The papers were certainly below the standard of the present matriculation, and in some respects

approached that of the Junior Locals or Second Class College of Preceptors. Part I. of the external paper consisted of easy pieces from Montaigne and Racine to be rendered into English. Part II. was a passage from Sir Walter Scott. This was the only part of the paper which could really be considered an adequate test for a student of one year's standing. The grammar portion, which no doubt counted as one-third of the whole, was a farce, and, with one question omitted, should be answered by a respectable fourth-form boy in about half an hour. I give the grammar questions of both papers (which may be answered either in French or English) as shining examples of some grammar questions which should not be asked—at least, not University students.

INTERNAL.

1. Donner la première personne (singulier et pluriel) du présent du subjonctif des verbes *aller*, *vouloir*, *faire*, *savoir*, *tenir*, *mouvoir*.

2. Citer les adverbes correspondant aux adjectifs *traître*, *impuni*, *bref*, *nouveau*, *complet*, *profond*.

3. Établir la distinction entre les prépositions *vers* et *envers*, *avant* et *devant*, *dans* et *en*. Donner des exemples.

4. Expliquer l'emploi du subjonctif dans les phrases suivantes :

(*a*) Je veux que vous partiez.

(*b*) Il a peur que je ne le punisse.

(*c*) C'est la meilleure chose qu'on puisse faire pour vous.

(*d*) Pourvu que je ne vienne pas trop tard.

5. Traduire en français :

(*a*) Do you speak of what happened ?

(*b*) You know what I have done.

(*c*) What is the matter ?

EXTERNAL.

1°. Conjuguer le présent de l'indicatif (voix active) des verbes suivants : *mettre*, *faire*, *voir*, *savoir*, *dire*.

2°. Former des verbes sur les mots suivants : *abus*, *cesse*, *force*, *grand*, *maître*, *simple*.

3°. Justifier l'emploi de la préposition *de* dans l'expression : *d'admirables* règlements (I [*a*], l. 5).

4°. Pourquoi met-on un accent grave sur *où* ? (I [*a*], l. 15). Citer d'autres mots ayant un sens différent suivant qu'ils portant l'accent grave ou non. Composer quelques phrases très courtes pour illustrer les différences de sens présentées par ces mots.

5°. Qu'appelle-t-on inversion ? Dire ce que vous savez de l'usage de l'inversion en prose et en poésie.

In the internal examination there were two papers of three hours each. In the first one there was a dictation, occupying, let us assume, half an hour. During the remaining two and a half hours the candidate had *either* to translate into French eighteen lines from Thackeray—viz., only two lines more than the external candidate had to do in about an hour—*or* expand a skeleton *narration* (from V. Hugo's *Les Pauvres Gens*, I believe), and write a free composition, of which the length was not mentioned. The second paper consisted of easy passages from De Tocqueville and Victor Hugo, in addition to the grammar quoted above.

The German external paper was longer than the French and much more difficult, and had free composition as an alternative. The grammar questions, though mainly of the old type, were good, and could not be answered without some real knowledge of the language. The internal German papers were not only much more difficult than the corresponding French ones, but they differed so much in length that I append a comparative table showing this :

FRENCH.

First Paper, Three Hours.

I. 18 lines of Thackeray ; *or*, Free Composition.

II. Dictation.

Second Paper, Three Hours.

22 lines of De Tocqueville.

27 lines of V. Hugo (poetry).

Grammar (as above).

GERMAN.

First Paper, Three Hours (two sections are to be attempted).

I. 22 lines of Thackeray.
II. 22 lines of Courier (translated).
III. Free Composition (300 words).
IV. Free Composition (300 words).

Second Paper, Three Hours.

17 lines of Mörike.
22 lines of Chamisso.
16 lines of Luigg (poetry).
Grammar (about one hour).

Surely the German candidate has here a legitimate grievance. Of course, a French paper of this kind has great advantages from some points of view. It is easy to set, easy to mark, and popular with the lazy or merely acquisitive student. But it gives no scope for showing either diligence or ability, and is a very poor test of the critical or constructive powers of the candidates. *Cui bono?* either in its proper or its popular use, would seem the most fitting question to conclude. Assuming that the candidate took French at his matriculation, these papers do not even insure that he has not lost ground. And it is difficult to understand what kind of University teaching they are supposed to represent.

MAJOR DE SANSGÊNE.

LE LYCÉE FRANÇAIS.

UN lycée de garçons en France est un établissement d'enseignement secondaire appartenant à l'État. On y prépare les élèves aux différents baccalauréats, à l'École militaire de Saint-Cyr, à l'École polytechnique, et à toutes les grandes écoles.

Il y a un lycée dans tous les chefs-lieux de département et dans les grandes villes. Chaque lycée est dirigé par un Proviseur, assisté d'un Censeur, dont la mission est d'organiser les cours et de surveiller tout le personnel enseignant. Il est aidé dans ses fonctions par un Surveillant général. Un Procureur Économe s'occupe de l'administration matérielle et surtout de l'alimentation.

LE PROFESSORAT.

Les professeurs doivent être pourvus de grades universitaires relatifs aux cours dont ils sont chargés. Ainsi :

Pour les classes préparatoires, le diplôme de bachelier et un diplôme spécial.

Pour les classes élémentaires (8e, 7e), la licence.

Pour les classes de grammaire (6e, 5e, 4e), l'agrégation de grammaire.

Pour les classes supérieures (3e, 2e, 1e), l'agrégation des lettres.

Pour les classes de philosophie, l'agrégation de philosophie.

Pour les classes d'histoire et de géographie, l'agrégation d'histoire et de géographie.

Pour les classes de mathématiques, l'agrégation de mathématiques.

Pour les classes de chimie, l'agrégation de chimie.

Pour les classes de physique, l'agrégation de physique.

Pour les classes des sciences naturelles, l'agrégation des sciences naturelles.

Pour les classes de dessin, un diplôme spécial.

Les professeurs sont de première, de deuxième, ou de troisième classe de même que les lycées. Un professeur de première classe enseigne dans un lycée de première classe, etc.

Le traitement varie avec le grade et avec la classe. Les professeurs agrégés de première classe reçoivent 12,000 francs par an. Ceux des classes inférieures ne reçoivent que 8,000 francs. Ce traitement est le maximum. Les professeurs qui ont des grades inférieurs et professent dans les lycées de 2e et 3e classe touchent beaucoup moins. Ils ne sont occupés que vingt

heures par semaine au lycée. Chez eux ils ont à corriger et à noter les copies des élèves. Quelques-uns arrivent à gagner près de 18,000 francs par an, parce qu'ils donnent des répétitions aux élèves riches, qui payent jusqu'à 10 francs la leçon d'une heure. Ceux qui sont très en vogue se permettent parfois de réunir plusieurs élèves de même force pour la leçon. Les professeurs des classes inférieures ne prennent que 5 francs pour une répétition.

La garde des internes est confiée à des maîtres (appelés vulgairement 'pions'), qui n'ont qu'à produire le diplôme de bachelier. Ils sont logés, nourris, et reçoivent un traitement qui varie de 900 à 1,200 francs. Souvent de jeunes maîtres sans fortune préparent entre deux la licence d'abord, l'agrégation ensuite.

Tous les professeurs, quels qu'ils soient, abandonnent à l'État un vingtième de leur traitement pour recevoir, après vingt-cinq années d'exercice, une pension de retraite basée sur le traitement des cinq dernières années.

Des Élèves.

Dans chaque lycée il y a des pensionnaires, des demi-pensionnaires, des externes surveillés et des externes libres, qui ne viennent que pour assister aux cours et font leurs devoirs chez eux, tandis que les externes surveillés préparent leurs leçons sous la surveillance des maîtres comme les pensionnaires et les demi-pensionnaires.

Prix de l'Enseignement.

Le prix de la pension est de 1,000 francs par an, de la demi-pension de 600 francs, de l'externat surveillé de 200 francs, et de l'externat libre de 150 francs. Pour les jeunes élèves la pension ne coûte pas aussi cher ; les parents s'arrangent avec le proviseur. Les prix sont payables d'avance comme il suit : Trois dixièmes à la rentrée d'octobre, trois dixièmes à la rentrée de janvier, et quatre dixièmes à la rentrée de Pâques.

Les internes sont habillés uniformément : Pantalon, gilet et veston en drap bleu foncé avec boutons dorés et palme brodée auprès de la boutonnière, où se placent ordinairement les décorations, une casquette en drap bleu foncé avec un galon doré.

Les Vacances et les Congés.

L'année scolaire commence les premiers jours d'octobre et se termine fin juillet. Après le 14 juillet il n'y a plus de cours, et les élèves sont libres de partir en vacance ou de rester jusqu'à la distribution des prix. Pour ceux qui restent les professeurs font une révision des matières enseignées.

Pendant l'année plusieurs congés sont accordés : 1°, deux jours aux fêtes de la Toussaint, 1 et 2 novembre ; 2°, cinq jours au commencement de janvier (vacances du premier de l'an) ; 3°, dix jours à Pâques ; 4°, trois jours aux fêtes de la Pentecôte. Les bons élèves obtiennent facilement la permission d'aller passer la journée du dimanche dans leur famille ou chez des correspondants désignés au proviseur par les parents. Les grandes vacances durent deux mois — août et septembre.

Les Heures de Travail et de Récréation.

Le lever des élèves a lieu à cinq heures trois quarts. Ils descendent à l'étude, et y travaillent jusqu'à sept heures moins le quart. A sept heures et quart, petit déjeuner et récréation ; de huit heures à neuf heures, classe ; de neuf heures à neuf heures cinq, récréation ; de neuf heures cinq à dix heures, classe ; de dix heures à dix heures et quart, récréation ; de dix heures et quart à onze heures, étude ; de onze heures à midi, récréation ; de midi à midi et demie, déjeuner ; de midi et demie à une heure, récréation ; d'une heure à deux heures, étude ; de deux heures à quatre heures, classes (cinq minutes de récréation entre les deux classes) ; de quatre heures à cinq heures, goûter et récréation ; de cinq heures à sept heures, étude.

Les Repas.

Le petit déjeuner a lieu à sept heures et quart. On prend du lait, du café au lait, ou du chocolat. Le second déjeuner a lieu à midi. Il se compose d'une entrée et de deux plats, sans dessert, ou deux plats et un dessert quand il n'y a pas d'entrée. Au dîner, qui a lieu à sept heures, on donne un potage et deux plats. Le vendredi on ne sert que des repas maigres. En général la nourriture est bonne, hygiénique, et substantielle.

L'Instruction morale et civique.

L'instruction morale et civique y est donnée à l'occasion de l'enseignement du français, de l'histoire, et de la géographie. Il n'y a pas d'heure déterminée pour cette branche de l'enseignement sauf en quatrième et en troisième, où il y a un cours d'une heure.

L'Instruction religieuse.

L'instruction religieuse est facultative. La plus grande liberté est accordée aux parents. Ceux-ci doivent déclarer au proviseur, à la rentrée d'octobre, s'ils désirent que leur fils reçoive l'instruction religieuse. Pour ceux dont les parents ont exprimé leur volonté en faveur de l'instruction religieuse, un ou deux aumôniers nommés par le ministre, avec l'agrément de l'évêque, font des cours et des conférences religieuses, et le dimanche ils célèbrent les offices dans la chapelle; les élèves sus-désignés y sont conduits et surveillés.

Les Langues vivantes.

Le nombre d'heures pour l'enseignement des langues vivantes varie avec les cycles et avec les sections. Dans le premier cycle —c'est-à-dire, jusques et y compris la classe de troisième—il y a par semaine cinq leçons d'une heure chacune pour la langue choisie. Dans le deuxième cycle—comprenant les classes de seconde, de première et de philosophie — le nombre d'heures de leçon varie avec les sections. Ainsi pour la Section A, grec-latin, deux heures; la Section B, latin - langues vivantes, sept heures (dont trois pour la langue déjà étudiée dans le premier cycle et quatre pour la seconde langue); la Section C, latin-sciences, deux heures; la Section D, sciences-langues vivantes, sept heures (dont trois pour la langue déjà étudiée dans le premier cycle et quatre pour la seconde langue).

Le Tambour.

Tous les changements d'exercice sont annoncés par un roulement de tambour fait par un élève choisi parmi les nombreux boursiers—c'est-à-dire, ceux qui ne payent pas de pension, généralement fils de fonctionnaires sans fortune. L'élève qui bat le tambour est appelé 'le réglementaire.' Ses camarades le désignent ironiquement par le nom de 'tapin.'

Exercices physiques.

Depuis quelques années les exercices physiques ont pris une grande place dans les lycées. Il y a un professeur de gymnastique et d'escrime attaché à l'établissement. La gymnastique est obligatoire; l'escrime est facultative, et se paye en plus. Il y a des équipes de football, de coureurs à pied, qui se mesurent parfois avec les équipes correspondantes des lycées voisins. Le golf est interdit dans beaucoup de lycées, à cause des accidents qui se sont produits.

A. B. Young.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHERS' REFERENCE LIBRARY.

THE desire has repeatedly been expressed that the selection of books given in Vol. I., pp. 172-176, should be reissued in a revised form. A letter was accordingly sent to about thirty members of the Association, inviting suggestions, and much valuable help has been received. It seems best at first to print various sections, in order to give all our members an opportunity of contributing towards this list. When it has assumed what for the time being may be regarded as its final form, it will be issued as a whole, probably in the form of a supplement to MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

The sections which we are including in this number deal with literature and prosody. It would be valuable to have suggestions on the following points:

1. Should further books be added, especially in the section 'specimens'?

2. Is it desirable to add books dealing with special periods of literature?

3. Should books be added which give bare outlines?

In the next issue it is proposed to issue the sections dealing with history and geography, and life and ways, and perhaps a list of dictionaries. For all these sections further contributions would be very welcome; suggestions of good books, if possible well illustrated and not expensive, dealing in an interesting fashion with the history of France and Germany, are particularly wanted. The full title, name of publisher, and price, should be given in each case.

The remaining sections will be issued in early numbers of the next volume.

All comments and suggestions referring to these bibliographical sections should be addressed to the editor.

French.

History of Literature.

P. DE JULLEVILLE. Histoire de la langue et de la littérature française des origines à 1900. (Colin, Paris.) 8 vols. 13s. 4d. each, unbound.

G. LANSON. Histoire de la littérature française. (Hachette, Paris.) 3s. 9d., unbound.

E. FAGUET. Histoire de la littérature française. (Plon, Nourrit, Paris.) 2 vols. 10s.

R. DOUMIC. Histoire de la littérature française. (Delaplane, Paris.) 3s.; cloth 3s. 4d.

G. PELLISSIER. Précis de l'histoire de la littérature française. (Delagrave, Paris.) 3s.

G. SAINTSBURY. History of French Literature. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) 10s. 6d. Primer of French Literature. 2s.

E. DOWDEN. History of French Literature. (Heinemann.) 6s.

SUCHIER & BIRCH-HIRSCHFELD. Geschichte der französischen Litteratur. (Meyer's Bibliographisches Institut.) 16s.

Specimens.

P. DE JULLEVILLE. Morceaux choisis des auteurs français. (Masson, Paris.) 3 vols. in 1, cloth 4s. 2d.

G. SAINTSBURY. Specimens of French Literature. (Clarendon Press. Oxford.) 9s.

C. PLOETZ. Manuel de la littérature française. (Herbig, Berlin.) 4s. 6d.

C. POLACK & E. RODHE. Pages choisies des grands écrivains du XIX^{e} siècle (Prose). (Lindstedt, Lund.) 3s. 6d.

C. JULLIAN. Extraits des historiens français du XIX^{e} siècle. (Hachette, Paris.) 2s.

G. MERLET. Anthologie classique des poètes du XIX^{e} siècle. (Lemerre, Paris.) 3s.

German.

History of Literature.

VOGT & KOCH. Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur. (Meyer's Bibliographisches Institut.) 2 vols. 20s.

E. ENGEL. Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur. (Freytag, Leipzig.) 2 vols. 12s.

AD. BARTELS. Geschichte der deutschen Litteratur. (Avenarius, Leipzig.) 2 vols. 12s.

W. HAHN. Geschichte der poetischen Litteratur der Deutschen. (Cotta Nachfolger, Berlin.) 4s. 3d.

J. G. ROBERTSON. History of German Literature. (Blackwood.) 10s. 6d.

K. FRANCKE. History of German Literature. (Bell.) 10s. 6d.

W. SCHERER. History of German Literature. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) 2 vols. 15s. Without Appendices and Bibliographies, 2 vols., 3s. 6d. each.

G. KOENNECKE. Bilderatlas zur Geschichte der deutschen Nationallitteratur. (Elwert, Marburg.) 28s.

Specimens.

M. MÜLLER. German Classics. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) Vol. i., 8s. 6d.; vol. ii., 5s. 6d.

M. HENSCHKE. Deutsche Prosa. (Teubner, Leipzig.) 3s. 9d.

I. W. SCHAEFER. Auswahl aus deutschen Dichtern des achtzehnten und neunzehnten Jahrhunderts. (Heinsius, Bremen.) 4s. 6d.

TH. VON SOSNOSKY. Die Deutsche Lyrik des 19. Jahrhunderts. (Cotta.) 5s.

O. LYON. Auswahl deutscher Gedichte. (Velhagen and Klasing, Leipzig.) 2s. 2d.

Prosody.

French.

M. GRAMMONT. Le vers français. (Picard, Paris.) 6s.

A. TOBLER. Le vers français ancien et moderne. Translated by Breul and Sudre. (Bouillon, Paris.) 5s.

F. SPENCER. A Primer of French Verse. (Pitt Press, Cambridge.) 3s.

V. KASTNER. History of French Versification. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) 5s. 6d.
A. GOSSET. A Manual of French Prosody. (Bell.) 3s.
L. BRANDIN & W. G. HARTOG. A Book of French Prosody. (Blackie.) 3s. 6d.
H. BERTHON. Specimens of Modern French Verse, with an Introduction on the Structure of French Verse. (Macmillan.) 2s. 6d.

German.

J. MINOR. Neuhochdeutsche Metrik. (Trübner, Strassburg.) 10s.
F. KAUFFMANN. Deutsche Metrik nach ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung. (Elwert, Marburg.) 4s. 6d.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE ordinary monthly meeting of the Executive Committee was held at the College of Preceptors on Saturday, November 30.

Present: Messrs. Somerville (chair), Allpress, Miss Batchelor, Dr. Breul, Messrs. Eve, Kirkman, Milner-Barry, Miss Partington, Mr. Payen-Payne, Miss Purdie, Messrs. Rippmann, Storr, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Letters of apology for absence were read from Mr. Longsdon and Miss Morley.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The sitting was mainly occupied with the arrangement of the details of the Annual General Meeting.

The other matters dealt with were as follows:

The resignation of Miss Batchelor as local secretary for Buckinghamshire, consequent on her change of residence, and that of Mr. Wall for Wiltshire, were received with regret. Mr. G. Corner, Wellington County School, was elected local secretary for Somersetshire.

Miss Batchelor agreed to act as correspondent of the Société d'Échange International in England.

A letter was read from the Provisional Committee for promoting a General Educational Congress, asking—(i.) Will the Association be prepared to take an active part in the Joint Congress in January, 1909, and, if possible, to hold its annual business meeting in connexion with such Congress? (ii.) Will the Association undertake to contribute the sum of £1, or such smaller sum as may be found sufficient, towards the preliminary expenses of arranging such a Congress? (iii.) Will the Association guarantee the sum of £3 3s. towards the actual expenses of such a Congress?

The representatives of the Association on the Provisional Committee were requested to act as a sub-committee for the consideration of the question, and to report to the General Meeting.

A letter was read from the Cambridge Syndicate for Local Examinations, asking for the decision of the Association on the question of the use of German handwriting in the Higher Local Examination. It was resolved to reply that it was desirable that credit should be given for German handwriting, provided the writing is well formed and legible.

It was resolved to co-operate with the Federated Association of London Non-primary Teachers in promoting a conference next spring on the teaching of modern languages.

ANALYSIS OF THE MEMBERSHIP OF THE ASSOCIATION.

The following figures show the composition of the Association as it stood on June 7, 1907:

Men	...	...	455
Women	...	...	191
			646

The men thus constitute approximately 71 per cent., and the women approximately 29 per cent., of the membership.

MEN.

Professors, Lecturers, and Tutors in Universities and University Colleges		62
Head Masters of Public Secondary Schools...	36	
Head Masters of Private Secondary Schools	15	
Head Masters retired	3	
	—	54
Assistant Masters in Public Secondary Schools...	150	
Assistant Masters in Private Secondary Schools	13	
Assistant Masters retired ...	4	
	—	167
Officials and Inspectors		12
In Training Colleges		5
In Technical Institutions		4
Private Teachers		10
Miscellaneous		28
In Scotland		7
In Ireland		8
Englishmen overseas		22
Foreigners in foreign countries ...		30
Particulars not known		46
		455

WOMEN.

Lecturers and Tutors in Universities and University Colleges		18
Head Mistresses of Public Secondary Schools...	13	
Head Mistresses of Private Secondary Schools...	5	
	—	18
Assistant Mistresses in Public Secondary Schools	64	
Assistant Mistresses in Private Secondary Schools	12	
	—	76
Inspectors		2
In Training Colleges		6
Private Teachers		2
In Pupil-teacher Centres		2
In Polytechnics		2
Miscellaneous		7
In Scotland and Ireland		11
Overseas		5
Particulars not known		42
		191

One or two remarks on the above table are needed. There are a few members whom it is difficult to classify, but their number is so small that the general result is not appreciably affected. The figures given against 'Private Teachers' are clearly fallacious; probably many members whose status is unknown ought to be in this category. Of the assistant masters it may be noted that 77 are in 'Conference' schools, and 73 in other schools. There are about 110 public secondary schools represented in the men's list. The number of members who are not connected with the teaching profession is very small. Nearly all the members who are overseas are in the British Empire (there are eight in India); a few, however, are on the Continent of Europe. It is curious that, while there are thirty foreigners amongst the men, we have only one foreign lady on our books.

The following is the programme for the Annual General Meeting:

Monday, January 6: 8.30 to 10 p.m.—The Members of the Association and their friends will meet at Queen's College. Music. (Evening dress optional.)

Tuesday, January 7: 9.45 a.m.—General Committee Meeting.

10.30 a.m.—General Meeting. Report of General Committee. Hon. Treasurer's Report. Reports of Editors of Publications. Future arrangements for carrying on the *Modern Language Review*.

12 noon.—Presidential Address: Mr. F. Storr.

1 p.m.—Interval for lunch.

2 p.m.—Discussion: 'Position of German in English Schools.' Opener: Mr. E. L. Milner-Barry.

Resolution: That this meeting, considering it desirable that the greater encouragement should be given to the study of German in schools, urges the Board of Education to reconsider its policy of requiring that where only two languages are taught in a school, one must be Latin, unless good reason can be shown for its omission.

4 p.m.—Tea.

4.30 p.m.—Report on the Condition of

Modern Language Teaching in Schools: Mr. F. B. Kirkman.

Miss Matthews: 'Modern Language Work in the West Riding.'

7.15 p.m. for 7.30 p.m.—Dinner at the Holborn Restaurant. (Evening dress optional.)

Wednesday, January 8: 10.30 a.m.—Discussion: 'The Place of Translation in Modern Language Teaching.' Opener: Mr. F. B. Kirkman.

12 noon.—Miss Purdie: 'French Plays and Songs in School.'

1 p.m.—Interval for lunch.

2 p.m.—Resolutions on the Age for beginning Languages, passed at a Conference of representatives of the Assistant Masters' Association, Classical Association, and Modern Language Association:

1. That before a scholar begins the study of a second language he should have developed some power of correct speaking and writing in English, and should have acquired some knowledge of the functions of words and of their grammatical relations to one another.

2. That French be the second language learnt.

3. That French should be begun as a school subject when the pupil has attained a satisfactory standard in English, which in the case of the average boy should be not later than the age of nine.

4. That the third language taken should be Latin; but that in cases in which the school curriculum makes it inadvisable to take Latin, the third language be German.

5. That the third language (Latin) should be begun when the pupil has attained a sufficient standard in French, which in the case of boys who have not begun French before the age of nine would be about the age of eleven.

Application for tickets for the Social Meeting or the Dinner must be made to the Hon. Secretary, 45, South Hill Park, Hampstead, N.W., before January 4. Dinner tickets are 6s. each (wine not included).

THE Right Hon. Lord Fitzmaurice has accepted an invitation to be President of the Association for 1908.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer is President of the Classical Association, and the Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs is to be the next President of the Modern Language Association. The interest shown by these distinguished statesmen in educational questions will be heartily welcomed in the Universities and at the schools. Lord Fitzmaurice's relations with modern languages—or, at least, with French—date from his birth; for his mother was a daughter of the Comte de Flahault and his Scotch wife, Lady Keith, and a granddaughter, therefore, of Mme de Souza, whose *salon* was famous in the last days of the *ancien régime*. His lordship won at Eton the Prince Consort's Prize for Modern Languages. Since then he has had a successful career in diplomacy and politics. The keen interest he took in the visit of the French *professeurs* last year, and his sympathy with the project of endowing the Guilde Internationale, are well known to members; while his speech in French at the dinner to the Association des Langues Vivantes remains a delightful memory to those who heard it. We feel sure that all members will offer the most cordial welcome to our incoming President.

* * *

Professor Rippmann's course of five lectures on Phonetics for Teachers will be delivered on Tuesday, December 31, to Saturday, January 4, inclusive, at Queen's College, 43, Harley Street, W. Each lecture will last from 9.30 to 11 a.m., and will include practical work. The number of students at the lectures will be limited to twenty. The fee for the course is 5s. for members of the Association, and 10s. for others. Applications, with which the fee should be remitted, must be made to the Hon. Secretary before December 25.

As will be seen from the report of the meeting of the Executive Committee, Miss Batchelor has undertaken to act as correspondent on this side of the water with the Société d'Échange International des Enfants et des Jeunes Gens. Any members who know of families who would like to receive French children in their houses in exchange for hospitality for their own children should write to Miss Batchelor, Letcombe Bassett Rectory, Wantage. We wish Miss Batchelor every success in her public-spirited work.

REVIEWS.

Phonetic Transcriptions of English Prose. By Daniel Jones. Pp. xiv + 88. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1907. 2s.

Mr. Jones, the Lecturer on Phonetics at University College, London, has done a useful piece of work in preparing these transcriptions. Increased attention is fortunately being devoted to English phonetics, and the alphabet of the *Association Phonétique Internationale*, which Mr. Jones employs, is coming to be well known. Twenty-one passages have been transcribed—six in style A (pronunciation suitable for reciting or reading in public), twelve in style B (pronunciation used in careful conversation or reading aloud in private), and three in style C (pronunciation used in rapid conversation). To these is added the transcription of a gramophone record (a speech from *Julius Cæsar* by Mr. Beerbohm Tree), with a careful indication of pitch variations. In a lucid introduction Mr. Jones dwells on certain features of his transcription, and explains a few special signs which he has thought it necessary to adopt.

Throughout we are struck by numerous instances of Mr. Jones's careful discrimination of sounds; his work as a whole is thoroughly conscientious. The choice of passages is also to be commended. If in what follow we mention some points with which we do not agree, we certainly do so with no desire to disparage what is a valuable contribution to English phonetics.

The book is 'primarily designed for the use of foreigners,' and as such will prove useful. Perhaps it would have been better to give further examples of fluent conversational speech; and it is surely a pity that Mr. Jones should have confined himself to prose. It may further be suggested that breath pauses might have been indicated with advantage, especially for the use of foreigners. The arrangement by which the ordinary text and the transcription are given on opposite pages may prove unwelcome to the teacher.

Turning to matters of detail, we regret to find that [ʌ] is adopted in the style A pieces. For foreigners, if not for English students also, it would have been well to indicate the half-long [ə] in *gathered*, *fathers*, etc., and in *were* (in some cases). Such pronunciations as [sen/uə, ɔ:ftən] should not even be admitted as possible; surely no one can employ them without jarring on the majority of his hearers. Such transcriptions as [inkwaiəri] are sure to mislead foreigners; they will make the [ə] distinct, when it should be quite faint. It would perhaps have been better to omit this [ə] altogether; at any rate, it might have been printed in smaller type. A striking feature in style B is the large number of long vowels in unstressed positions; it would surely have represented the ordinary pronunciation better if they had been made half-long. They even occur in style C, where in most cases short

vowels would be used. The pronunciation [ɔ:lweiz] strikes us as unnatural, even in careful conversation; the usual alternative is not given. On the other hand, [grændʒə] appears in style B, but the more 'careful' pronunciation is not mentioned. In the case of *luxury* two forms are given [lʌkʃuri, lʌksjuri], but not [lʌkʃəri]; the first may pass, but most would regard the second as intolerable. Of *century* only the form [sentjuri] is given. In style B [grænfa:ðə] gives one a shock, especially when it appears in the title of a book.

There are a good many more points which might be singled out; they would perhaps only prove that there is as yet no real uniformity in 'careful conversation.' Here we have the record of his own speech by a conscientious Southern English phonetician; that is indeed something to be thankful for. In his next edition (may it soon be called for!) we may hope that he will give a little more space to style C, and that he will choose some other extracts in place of those from Boswell and Goldsmith, which do not lend themselves to 'rapid conversation.' It will interest us greatly to see whether Mr. Jones will make any changes in his transcription; it would be no confession of weakness to do so, for the phonetic transcription of English prose is no child's play, and Mr. Jones is too modest a scholar to think that his work must be perfect at the very outset.

Mme d'Aulnoy: La Belle aux Cheveux d'Or. Edited by A. J. BERWICK and A. BARWELL. Blackie, 1907. Pp. 72. Price 1s.

The well-known fairy-tale is divided into thirty-three sections of about twenty lines each. A full vocabulary is given to each section, and from No. 7 onwards there are very scanty questionnaires. The majority of the questions are of the type 'Que dit-il?' which require no more than a repetition of the words in the text. From No. 20 to the end there are also a few sentences for retranslation. To swell the book there are *Récitations*, consisting of five poems, to which also a vocabulary is supplied. We have yet to add that there are three pages of 'aids to pronunciation,' which, according to the editors, 'have been adapted from the Gouin system of teaching to read, and have been found most successful.' We are surprised to hear this, as they seem altogether inadequate and in part misleading. The editors (so they tell us in their prefatory note), 'from long practical experience, confidently claim that classes who have worked through this reader, and at the same time learnt the regular and irregular French verbs, will have little or no difficulty afterwards in translating any simple book.' If this has been the sole object, then why bother about the pronunciation and supply questionnaires and retranslation exercises? If, however, the pupils are to acquire any power of handling French they will require something quite different, and to the reform teacher the book naturally offers nothing. The best thing about it is the very attractive frontispiece.

Le Père Goriot. Balzac. Edited with introduction and notes by R. L. SANDERSON. Heath. Boston, 1907. Pp. ix+361 (328 pp. text, 33 pp. notes). Price 3s. 6d.

A good edition, not overloaded with editorial matter. There is much useful information in the notes, and to readers on this side of the Atlantic the American point of view will appear fresh and original—*e.g.*, '"*rat d'église*" (*cf.* English "rat")—*i.e.*, clergyman, spoken in contempt' (Halliwell). '*pays latin*, same as *quartier latin*, the centre of higher education in Paris.' '*Collège de France* may be called the temple of human knowledge.' There is a Biblical quaintness about 'mightily gotten up' for 'joliment ficelées,' while it is doubtless British ignorance that fails to comprehend the relevance of the last term in '*pâtes d'Italie*, the general name for "macaroni, spaghetti, vermicelli, noodles," and the like. What are "rockets of a bouquet"?'—(note on p. 206).

Quatre-vingt-treize, par V. Hugo. Authorized school edition abridged and edited by C. FONTAINE. Heath. London, 1907. Pp. vi+250 (193 pp. text, 12 pp. notes, 44 pp. vocab.). Price 2s.

Like all the volumes in Heath's Modern Language Series, this forms a very attractive book, light to the hand, printed in clear type on good paper. The text will be read with avidity by boys and girls in our upper forms, especially as the edition is not over-encumbered with notes, the few there are being brief and mostly to the point. The vocabulary is prefaced by the following note: 'Words identical in French and English, as also a number of others, the meanings of which should be evident to readers of this text, have been purposely omitted.' Yet—to take one letter only—we find included afin que, aider, aimer, aller, alors, anglais, après, arbre, arrière, assez, aucun, aussi, autre, avancer, avant, avec! Otherwise the vocabulary is a sound piece of work with remarkably few omissions; peulvens (p. 22), porque (p. 17), caimand (p. 56), se cogner (p. 72), are the only words that need a note or a place in the vocabulary of which we have detected the omission. Slight misprints occur on p. 87, l. 13, p. 92, l. 25.

La Jeunesse de Bonaparte. Extrait des Mémoires de Bourienne. Edited by A. CANIVET. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1907. Pp. xi+91 (62 pp. text, 29 pp. notes). Price 2s.

Louis XI. et Charles le Téméraire. By Michelet. Edited by E. RENAULT. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1907. Pp. xv+129 (96 pp. text, 63 pp. notes). Price 2s. 6d.

Two volumes of M. Léon Delbos's Oxford Modern French Series, the object of which is to secure a literary appreciation of French by providing 'selections from the best foreign literature of the nineteenth century.' The excellent paper and type seem worthy of a less hideous binding than these stiff white-lettered buff boards. The notes—of the encyclopædic type—appear to be full and sound.

As to the text, although De Bourienne was Napoleon's schoolfellow, and, later, his private secretary, these pages from his memoirs strike us as dull, and the style as lacking in distinction.

Louis XI. stands on a very different footing. A delightful introduction claims Michelet as 'one of the most original writers of French prose.' The first page of the text impresses this fact in a way far more convincing than any number of introductions, and one is irresistibly led on from paragraph to paragraph, page to page, until the book is finished. Above all, it is an ideal school-book, for rare indeed will be the boy or girl who will not be stimulated by the genius of style in this volume to read for himself or herself the rest of the 'Histoire de France.'

Causeries du Lundi, par Sainte-Beuve. Selected Essays edited by A. W. TRESSLER. Arnold. London, 1907. Pp. vii+152 (81 pp. text, 62 pp. notes, 9 exercises in translation). Price 1s. 6d.

Le Coup d'Etat, par V. Hugo. Edited with an Historical Introduction, Notes and Exercises by J. W. LONGSDON. Arnold. London, 1907. Pp. xxiv+120 (94 pp. text, 18 pp. notes, 8 exercises in translation). Price 1s. 6d.

These form the second and third volumes of Arnold's new series of advanced French texts. In scholarly workmanship, they are a great advance on Volume I.

Mr. Tressler's notes are almost entirely historical or grammatical. His Latin, Greek, and German parallels to French usages are excellent from the point of view of comparative syntax, but as they are often introduced to elucidate or illustrate perfectly simple idioms, an excessive number of pages is devoted to notes in comparison with the length of the text. Only four essays are given: 'Les Confidences,' 'Raphaël,' 'Histoire de la Restauration,' 'Qu'est-ce qu'un Classique?' We should have welcomed more of Sainte-Beuve and fewer notes. The exercises for translation include no subjects for free composition—

a serious declension from the standard set by Volume I.

Mr. Longsdon shows a wise reticence in his notes, restricting them to explanations of allusions and technical terms. Besides giving some well-selected passages for set composition and retranslation, he offers an excellent list of suggestions, twenty in number, for free composition. To the teacher on reformed lines these should prove extremely useful.

Stories and Anecdotes for Translation into French, By CARL HEATH. Bell. London, 1907. Pp. viii+72. Price 1s.

Seventy-two short and simple stories, fables, etc., for translation into French, with the aid of notes, seventeen pages of vocabulary, five of elementary grammatical rules. The intention of the book is best expressed by a quotation from the preface:

'After all, there is no satisfactory method of learning a foreign language, except one of hard work, and the grammar *must* be mastered. However, even for the small boy this need not be a painful experience. The elementary rules of French grammar may be learned as they are needed in the writing or speaking of short and entertaining stories. This primer is intended to serve such a purpose.'

Given the 'mixed forms of thirty to forty boys' whom the author has in mind, the book is probably as well suited to keep them occupied during the French lesson as any other.

Exercises in French Conversation and Composition. By GUSTAV HEIN. London: George Harrap and Co. Crown 8vo., pp. viii+120. 1s. 6d.

This book contains sixty pieces of suitable French prose (average length about twelve lines). The pieces are not hackneyed, the editor tells us in the preface. The table of contents makes us wonder what the word 'hackneyed' means. At all events, many of the stories are well known because they are good, and often enough they are 'chestnuts' only for the masters and mistresses, and not for their pupils. And in these busy times, when Modern Language teachers are expected to do so much, it is no disadvantage to have to work on familiar ground, the good and useful points of which have been discovered by experience. Mr. Hein seems to have been happily inspired by some of the recent admirable books published in Germany. Each piece of prose is followed by questions on the text and by English sentences for retranslation. There is a demand for this kind of book, and Mr. Hein's book is likely to prove very useful. It is a pity that vocabularies are still written with *m.* and *f.* for the genders instead of the articles. The book is well printed, the text being set up in pica.

1. *Easy Free Composition in French.* By L. M. BULL. Published by Dent and Co. Price 1s. 4d. 2. *Free Composition and Essay Writing in French.* By A. PHILIBERT and A. PRATT. Published by Dent and Co. Price 1s. 4d.

To anyone who is striving to teach French without the help of the mother-tongue and to cultivate in the scholar a readiness to express himself in the foreign language in easy, simple style, these two books will be of great value. The need of training the pupil to write free compositions rather than word for word translations, has been pressed by reformers over and over again upon the attention of teachers, but very little, if any, practical help in this direction has been obtainable. Miss Bull's text-book affords a varied type of elementary composition: first, stories for reproduction; secondly, the vocabulary and skeleton outline of composition on themes of daily life; and, lastly, subjects the vocabulary for which can be found in Professor Rippmann's French Picture Vocabulary. Such a text-book should prove exceedingly useful for purposes of either oral or written work.

The student who has made use of Miss Bull's book will pass readily to the more advanced text-book worked out by Messrs. A. Philibert and A. Pratt, B.A., B.Sc., a text-book of still greater value. In this

book the suggested compositions cover a wider range and include such subjects as descriptions of towns, biographies of great men — political, literary, etc. — critical analyses of works by French authors, and matters of a more abstract kind.

The plan followed seems to be first a composition on the subject, then three or four pages of suggestions for varying the vocabulary on the same or some kindred subject, and, lastly, about half a dozen suggested exercises on a similar subject. The last pages of the book are devoted to other 'sujets de rédaction,' and to an appendix explaining very clearly the difference between the passé défini and the imparfait.

These text-books should be in the hands of all teachers who aim at making French a real living language to their pupils.

Theoretisch-praktische Anleitung zur Besprechung und Abfassung deutscher Aufsätze. Von Dr. Julius Naumann. Leipzig: Teubner, 1907. Pp. xviii+612. M. 4.80.

This is the eighth edition of a book which in Germany is well known, but which in England has, we imagine, a very limited circulation. Any teacher of German in a good set on a modern side, or, indeed, anyone with advanced pupils, will find this book invaluable as a help to the free use of German. Suggestions for the treatment of the most varied subjects are given. We mention a few: Schillers Prolog zu 'Wallensteins Lager,' Der Schild des Achilles, Es ist nicht alles Gold was glänzt, L'union fait la force, Einfluss Diderots auf Lessing's 'Minna von Barnhelm,' Das Wasser im Dienste des Menschen.

Kurzer Leitfaden der deutschen Dichtung. By A. E. Cop. Bell, 1907. Pp. viii.+126. Price 2s. 6d.

To condense the whole of German literature into 103 pages of large type is a bold undertaking, but on the whole Mr. Cop has done his work distinctly well. He has been careful about his facts, and has been, if anything, too anxious to include writers of minor importance. The style is now and then a little wanting in elegance. The work would be far more attractive if it were well illustrated, and we hope the publishers will consider this suggestion when they prepare the next edition.

Karl Kaisers Edelsteine deutscher Dichtung. New edition by G. Götze and E. Wangerin. Leipzig: Teubner, 1907. Pp. xvi+307. Price 2s.

The sixth edition of Kaiser's *Edelsteine* shows signs of a very careful revision, and may be regarded as an excellent selection of German poems. There are three parts (*Unterstufe*, *Mittelstufe*, and *Oberstufe*), containing respectively 50, 108, and 149 pages, and 95, 109, and 155 poems. In each section the poems are arranged according to the alphabetical order of the authors' names. Among these we notice representatives of our own times, such as Gustav Falke, Martin Greif, Arno Holz, and Johannes Trojan. The type is large and clear, and the binding neat and serviceable. The book is one we can heartily recommend.

Bell's First German Course. Illustrated. By L. B. T. Chaffey, M.A. Bell. Pp. 110. 2s.

After nine years' experience in teaching Modern Languages, and much reading of theory and practice, we cannot honestly recommend this book to teachers. Our reasons are as follows: There is little, if any, plan of progress throughout the book. From a quite promising beginning of direct method (*der Knabe, die Feder, das Papier*), we leap to: *das ist der schwarze Bleistift;* then to *the book heisst auf Deutsch 'das Buch,'* and other translation; and finally into the imperfect tense of *sein, gehen, wollen, haben*, not to mention the declension of an adjective after *ein*. All this in the first lesson and three pages! But the present of *sein, haben, fragen, gehen?* We discover *ist* and *heisst* and *stellt*—nothing more. There are few exercises of any sort, so the teacher using this book may know what he is in for in the way of preparation. Lastly,

the choice of vocabulary is, to our thinking, bad. In the first lesson, for instance, we have *Tennisschläger* and *Tennisspiel*. In the second, *leer* and *Beutel*. In the third, *kaum*. In the fourth, *Sportshemd* and a Germanized game of tennis. These facts should speak for themselves.

A First German Course. By J. B. Joerg and J. A. Joerg, illustrated by K. M. Roberts. Cassell. 1s. 6d.

This book frankly advocates translation from the beginning, together with conversation and retranslation. Quite as frankly, we are of opinion that the mixture is confusing, as the two methods are incompatible, and translation is a stumbling-block to direct connexion. Considerable care is shown in the editing, and a certain method of progress exists. But Messrs. Joerg's experience is apparently not ours, as in the second lesson they give twenty-eight words, the nominative and accusative of the definite and indefinite article, the present indicative of *haben* and *sein*. In the third lesson we have inversion, forty-eight new words, *auf* and *in* used with the accusative or dative, the present of *lieben*, and the full declension of *der*, usw. In the fourth lesson comes the accusative of definite time! Also the full declension of *ein!* Also the imperfect! In the fifth we have future and conditional! This is German by express train. We rather fancied that at this particular curve of progress in language the speed was not to exceed ten miles an hour. We have no desire to be flippant, but we should dislike being told to use the book in its present form. The illustrations are good and useful. The vocabulary is, for a beginner, excessive and difficult.

Hauff, Das Gespensterschiff. Edited by D. L. Savory. Rivingtons. Pp. 89. 1s. 6d.

Mr. Savory's name is a guarantee for good work, and this book is certainly the best piece of work of the kind he has done. As regards type, weight, and paper there is nothing left to be desired. The text has her and there been a little simplified, and there is a German-English vocabulary. This is not the place to discuss the wisdom of such vocabularies; besides, Mr. Savory knows best what he thinks best, and every part of his editing shows that he is working out his ideas according to a definite plan, 'fein ausspekuliert.' It is in the matter of exercises, which follow each of the ten sections, and of general preface to the series, that *Das Gespensterschiff* is specially excellent. The exercises cover everything necessary in the way of conversation, inflection, word-building, and word-use. We should like to see the general questions on the text classified into questions requiring the subject, questions requiring the object, questions requiring the verb, and so on; but we confess that few, if any, experts have given us support in this matter. In the *Vorwort* Mr. Savory lays down very clearly, and at some length, the lines on which the books should be used. His hints on teaching grammatical usages are, we are flattered to note, quite in accordance with our own. But three periods a week for German make it hard to tabulate much, when constant pressure of examinations makes progress in other directions so necessary. Reform has still solid work to do, and such books as this will assuredly help.

Willkommen in Deutschland: ein Lehrbuch für das zweite Jahr. By W. E. Mosher. London: D. C. Heath and Co. Crown 8vo., pp. viii + 243. 2s. 6d.

It is not every author of notes that would have the courage to pen such a confession as Dr. Mosher's in his preface: 'In the notes particularly I have been true to Jacob Grimm's definition of philology, that it is the worship of the unimportant: *die Andacht zum Unbedeutenden*.' As one of our members, a very prince of paradox, would say, there's nothing so important as the unimportant. Fortunately, we could never have guessed Dr. Mosher's ambition from the result. His book consists of a text dealing with various aspects of modern German life, the kind of information picked up during a six months'

visit in Berlin. There are questions on the text, also retranslation exercises organized so as to illustrate points of grammar in succession; notes, in many cases much too detailed to our liking, but compiled with great care, and as a rule with judgment; and there is a vocabulary (German-English). The book is well printed and has good illustrations. The map, on the other hand, is not a good one; neither the coast-line nor the frontiers are distinct, and no attempt is made to show clearly what Germany consists of. In all other respects the book is likely to be useful to teachers requiring a text-book on these lines.

Dictionary of Spanish Quotations. By T. B. Harbottle and Martin Hume. Published by Swan Sonnenschein. Pp. 462 (8 × 5½). Price 7s. 6d.

To give an idea of the scope of this work it will be sufficient to say that some 350 authors have been put to contribution —from Alfonso II. of Aragón, the king *trovador*, down to Galdós—and that such men as Calderón, Cervantes, Gracián, Quevedo, Rojas, Juan Ruiz, and Lope de Vega, each yield from 50 to over 200 quotations.

Such works of selection demand a nicety of judgment for which in this *recueil* we have ample guarantee in the names of the editors.

Each extract is accompanied by its English translation, which is always so neatly done as to be something more than a mere translation.

Cadalso, who possessed an excellent knowledge of English, and who was not devoid of humour, would have read, with no little enjoyment, the following version of his own lines:

> The grace and perfume of the pristine thought
> In a translation never can be caught;
> And to this doom is every author fated,
> However well his work may be translated.

He would have probably acknowledged that his friend Moratín had suffered little, if at all, at the hands of the translator who writes:

> Let him alone bright honour bear
> Who proves by titles sound and true
> That he of his own deeds is heir.

The dictionary is supplied with adequate indices in Spanish and in English, arranged alphabetically on a key-word plan. The quotations are also arranged alphabetically, though, as the archaic spelling of the earlier quotations has not been altered, we think that a chronological plan would have facilitated the work of philological students. Such a plan would, by grouping together the excerpts from the same author, enable one to catch a glimpse of his personality. A valuable feature in the eyes of the man to whom the book will appeal as supplementing his modest collection of Spanish authors.

R.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

Birmingham University.—Dr. Karl Wichmann, Professor of German, Sheffield University, has been appointed Professor of German Language and Literature, in succession to Professor Fiedler.

Breslau University.—Mr. J. F. Stoy has accepted a call as Lektor in English, and will assist Professor Sarrazin, the well-known Shakespeare scholar. Mr. Stoy has for some time been engaged by the London County Council as lecturer in German to the Norwood Technical Institute, and as German master to the Northwold Road Schools, Clapton. He is a son of the distinguished pedagogue, one of Herbart's most prominent pupils.

Calcutta Presidency College.—Mr. R. J. Cunningham has been appointed Professor of English and Philosophy.

Cambridge, Newnham.—The Mathilde Blind Scholarship for Modern Languages

has been awarded to Miss M. Cowper (Victoria College, Belfast).

DUBLIN, TRINITY COLLEGE.—The Board of Trinity College, in consequence of his nomination, by the unanimous vote of the University Council, have appointed Mr. Maurice A. Gerothwohl, D.Litt., to the Chair of the Romance Languages, in succession to Professor Robert Atkinson, retired. In addition to his ordinary duties, Mr. Gerothwohl will deliver prelections in comparative literature.

EXETER, ROYAL ALBERT MEMORIAL COLLEGE.—Mr. Osborn Waterhouse, M.A. Vict., Lektor in English, Royal Academy, Posen, has been appointed Lecturer in English Language and Literature.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY.—Mr. Herbert Smith, M.A. St. Andrew's, Ph.D. Marburg, has been appointed Lecturer in German.

GLASGOW UNIVERSITY.—Active steps are being taken for the establishment of a Chair or Lectureship in Scottish History and Literature.

LONDON UNIVERSITY. — Mr. Wilfrid Perrett, Ph.D., has been appointed Reader in German, in the place of Dr. R. A. Williams, recently elected to the Chair of German at Dublin.

READING UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.—Mr. A. V. Salmon has been appointed Professor of the French Language and Literature.

UNIVERSITY OF WALES.—Miss Mary Williams, M.A., of Aberystwyth, has been awarded a Research Fellowship in Modern Languages for one year.

Mr. A. B. Young, M.A. Camb. and Cape, Ph.D. Freiburg, Bristol Grammar School, has been appointed a Modern Language Master at Christ's College, Finchley.

Professor George P. Baker, of Harvard University, has been appointed Hyde Lecturer (in English Literature) at the University of Paris and other French Universities for the year 1907-1908.

The Report of the Curricula Committee of the Classical Association on the Teaching of Latin, which has just been published, recognizes the necessity of a good training in English before any foreign language is begun. 'Before children begin the study of a foreign language they should have learned to use their mother tongue with some degree of correctness and fluency, both orally and in writing, and have acquired a good stock of words, and a habit of orderly and connected thought.' On the inadvisability of children entering upon the study of two foreign languages at the same—or nearly the same—time the Report speaks with no uncertain voice. It calls attention to 'the disadvantages attending the common practice of beginning a second foreign language before the pupil has acquired an adequate knowledge of the first, and a third foreign language before the pupil has acquired an adequate knowledge of either the first or second. The elements of three foreign languages, taught concurrently, take up a very large portion of the school day; and pupils of only average ability naturally make very slow progress in any of the three languages, and consequently tend to lose interest in their work, and to do it mechanically.' The Report proceeds to recommend that in the first stages of learning a new tongue pupils should have a lesson every day in it, and that, as a rule, they should study the first foreign language for at least a year before the second is taken up, and the second for at least a year before the third is begun. On the question which should be the second language begun the Report is silent, but it is recommended that 'when, as will often be the case, a modern language, taught colloquially and at an early

age, is the first foreign language studied, the study of Latin should not be postponed beyond the age of eleven.' With the methods which it is suggested should be employed for the teaching of Latin we have not space to deal, but we may note that there is no recognition of the oral method, but that continuous translation from Latin into English from the first is recommended. The Report goes on to say that grammar and composition should be taught, not only with a view to reading Latin authors, 'but also as a linguistic discipline, and with a view to training the mind in habits of clear and logical thinking.' Further, we are told that the practice of composition is of the utmost importance, as 'developing habits of clear thinking.' Again, in the second part of the Report, the reasons for teaching Latin in schools where the leaving age is sixteen are thus given: 'The study of Latin gives a training in clearness of thought and accuracy of expression not easily obtained from the study of a modern language, introduces the pupil to the life of the ancients, is a necessary preliminary to the study of the origin of modern institutions, and assists in the comprehension of English literature.' In the first clause of this sentence is a challenge which we hope some of our members will take up. The latter part is scarcely a good example of that 'clearness of thought and accuracy of expression' which it is claimed that Latin develops. What is 'the study of the origin of modern institutions'? Where does it begin—with the call of Abraham, or with the French Revolution? as Freeman used to say. Why is Latin needed for its study, when we have Stubbs, Taine, Ranke, and all the others? Do the authors of the Report mean study in school, or after schooldays are over? Study by the average educated man, or study by the professional historian?

On the question of what can be done in teaching Latin in the lower secondary schools the Report takes a clear, common-sense line. The systematic study of Latin, both linguistically and as literature, will be out of the question. The scope of the work must be limited to what can be accomplished in the time available, which is not more than four or five periods a week for three or four years. Composition should be taught only as a means of understanding and remembering grammatical forms and constructions. The difficulty caused by the influx of boys from elementary schools, who know no foreign language, is best met by a separate classification for French and Latin. Finally—and it is encouraging to see this point insisted on—'the elementary stages of learning are the most important, and the work should be entrusted to the most competent and experienced teachers.'

We have only one further remark to make, which is that the opening paragraph of the Report has caused us considerable perplexity. It runs as follows: 'This Report falls into two sections—(*a*) that relating to the course of study in schools with a leaving age of eighteen or nineteen, and in schools preparatory thereto; (*b*) that relating to secondary schools under a local education authority.' But what about the endowed schools, not under a local authority, where the leaving age is less than eighteen? Apparently either they have been excluded from the scope of the Committee's deliberations, or the writers of the Report have made a bad 'howler' in logical classification. A little more 'clearness of expression' on this point would be very desirable.

* * *

'A study of Latin is an essential part of a complete modern education. No study of the development of European institutions is possible without a knowledge of Latin, for in it are contained the records of the development of law, religion, and thought. Latin is an essential instrument for the educated use of the vocabulary of the English language, and a knowledge of it is necessary to any scientific study of the Romance languages. A knowledge of the structure of the Latin language is the most valuable help to the understanding the

general principles of the European languages, and its regular and formal syntax is a valuable corrective to the loose phrasing which easily arises from the syntactical freedom of Latin.'

This paragraph is not a modernized version of a sixteenth-century treatise on education, as the first sentence might lead us to think, but an extract from a recent circular of the Board of Education on the teaching of Latin. Who, we wonder, is the Sleeping Beauty of Whitehall who has just been awakened from a four hundred years' slumber, and to whom Latin is still the key of all knowledge? We do not quite understand why natural science is omitted from the list of subjects. Surely, if we cannot study 'the development of religion' without reading St. Thomas Aquinas in the original, we cannot study the development of science without reading the 'Majus Opus' and the 'Novum Organum' in Latin.

We have repeatedly commented on the neglect of German in our schools. That the Germans are fully aware of the importance of studying English is well known; we nevertheless think it useful to reprint the following extract from the *Cologne Gazette*:

'*Englischer Sprachunterricht in den Gymnasien.*

'Der Verein Berliner Kaufleute und Industrieller hat in Gemeinschaft mit dem Zentralausschuss Berliner kaufmännscher, gewerblicher und industrieller Vereine bei dem Kultusminister den Antrag gestellt, den englischen Sprachunterricht in den Gymnasien als Pflichtfach einzuführen. In der dem Antrag beigegebenen Begründung wird auf die Notwendigkeit und auf die Vorteile hingewiesen, die aus der Einführung des englischen Sprachunterrichts für die Besucher der Gymnasien im allgemeinen und für diejenigen unter ihnen, die ihr Beruf mit den Englisch redenden Teilen der Welt in Berührung bringt, erwachsen müssen. Die beiden genannten Vereine erklären, es sorgfältigst vermeiden zu wollen, in den Streit der Humanisten und Realisten einzugreifen. Ihr Bemühen geht dahin, zu zeigen, dass das Gymnasium im Interesse der nationalen Wirtschaft und Kultur sich den Bedürfnissen der Praxis und den Erfordernissen, die an die Ausbildung von Kaufleuten, Ingenieuren, Kolonisatoren und Volkswirten gestellt werden, nicht verschliessen darf. Allen denjenigen, die einen praktischen Beruf ergreifen wollen, muss vielmehr die Möglichkeit gegeben werden, sich die humanistische Bildung eines Gymnasiums anzueignen, und die Eingabe bezeichnet es als höchst wünschenswert, dass nach wie vor ein erheblicher Prozentsaz der Pioniere deutscher Wirtschaft durch die Schule der Gymnasien gehe. Gerade in einer Zeit, in der über die weitgehende Spezialisierung und Zersplitterung, über Einseitigkeit der Interessen geklagt wird, in einer Zeit zugleich, in der der nationale Wettkampf der Völker immer schärfere Formen annimmt, in einem Kampfe, der Persönlichkeiten erfordert, die mehr sind als lediglich technisch ausgebildete Fachmenschen, sei es mehr als je notwendig, dass den Organisatoren und Propagandisten des deutschen Wirtschaftslebens die Möglichkeit der freien Entwicklung gewahrt bleibt und dass die Gefahr einer einseitigen Ausbildung verhindert wird. Dazu kommt, dass sehr viele Eltern ihre Kinder deshalb auf das Gymnasium schicken, weil den Absolventen des Gymnasiums alle Wege offen stehen oder Wert gelegt wird auf einen abgeschlossenen Bildungsgang oder endlich, weil die Eltern oft nicht in der Lage sind, die Fähigkeiten und Neigungen ihrer Kinder schon dann zu erkennen, wenn es sich darum handelt, zu entscheiden, welche Schule sie besuchen sollen. In allen diesen Fällen bietet das Gymnasium die Möglichkeit freier und rechtzeitiger Entschliessungen. An diese Ausführungen, die sich im voraus gegen die Einwände derjenigen richten, die das Gymnasium bestimmten Berufen und speziellen Zwecken vorbehalten wollen, schliessen sich die Darlegungen, die die Notwendigkeit des

englischen Unterrichts betonen. Der Kaufmann, der neue Handelsbeziehungen anknüpft, der Beamte in unsern Kolonien, der Historiker und Staatsmann, die der Kenntnis der englischen Einrichtungen und ihrer Geschichte bedürfen, der praktische Volkswirt, der heute oft nicht in der Lage ist, die klassische Schule im Original zu studieren, sie alle würden von der obligatorischen Einführung des englischen Sprachunterrichts den grössten Nutzen ziehen. Für den Staat aber ist es heute zur Notwendigkeit geworden, denjenigen, die er mit den besten Bildungsmitteln ausrüstet, die Faktoren greifbar plastisch vorzuführen, durch die England gross geworden ist, mit deren Hülfe es heute seine Stellung einnimmt. So offenbar die beherrschende Rolle ist, die England heute spielt, so offenbar ist die Notwendigkeit unserseits, die Folgerungen daraus zu ziehen, um den Wettkampf mit Aussicht auf Erfolg aufnehmen und durchführen zu können, und die Eingabe fordert deshalb die staatlichen Organe auf, diejenigen, die in diesem Wettkampf an vorderster Stelle stehen, mit allen Waffen und Werkzeugen auszurüsten, die tauglich und erreichbar sind; hierzu aber gehöre in erster Linie die Kenntnis der englischen Sprache. Schliesslich geben der Verein Berliner Kaufleute und der Zentralausschuss Berliner kaufmännischer, gewerblicher und industrieller Vereine noch die Frage der Errichtung eines "English college" nach Art des bei uns bestehenden französischen Gymnasiums zur Erwägung anheim.'

We have received from the Société d'Échange International des Enfants et des Jeunes Gens their report for 1907. The number of exchanges effected has risen from 25 in 1903 (the first year of the Society's activity) to 146 in 1907. The exchanges between English and French families show a marked increase, being 14 in 1906 and 34 in 1907. About three-quarters of the children are boys, and about three-quarters, again, of the exchanges are made for the holidays. But the girls are divided exactly between those who go abroad for a vacation and those who go for a longer period. The Director of the Society has written courteously expressing his thanks to the Modern Language Association for the help we have given him. We hope that next year we may be able to do much more. He has also sent copies of a number of letters received from English parents who have given and taken what one of them calls "peace hostages." These letters can be sent in confidence to any person who is contemplating asking for an exchange. The address of the Director of the Society is M. Toni-Mathieu, 36, Boulevard Magenta, Paris, and application may be made either to him or to Miss Batchelor (see p. 245).

The Assistant Masters' Association invites members of all educational associations to an address to be given by Professor M. E. Sadler at the annual meeting of the Association. The subject of the address is, 'Should Secondary Teachers be Civil Servants?' and it will be delivered at Merchant Taylors' School, Charterhouse Square, E.C., on Friday, January 10, at 2 p.m.

It is interesting to see our language as others see it. We take the following extract from the report of a French Inspector-General on the teaching of modern languages, to which we made reference in our October number:

"L'étude de la langue anglaise est un perpétuel enseignement de la pensée concrète, d'observation directe de la réalité, sa civilisation une école de volonté et de sens pratique. Par le contraste incessant que présente cette langue, faite de mots particuliers et pittoresques, avec les termes généraux et abstraits de notre langue maternelle, par l'opposition absolue qui existe entre les habitudes de la pensée anglaise, toute concrète, toute préoccupée de réalité, et qui derrière les mots aperçoit toujours la vivante complexité des choses, et nos habitudes de pensée abstraites et

simplistes à l'excès, l'étude de l'anglais, de l'histoire et de la littérature anglaises, si profondément différentes de notre histoire, de notre littérature, de notre civilisation, si intimement mêlées à elles cependant, est peut-être le plus puissant antidote à certains des défauts d'esprit qui compromettent le plus notre réussite dans le domaine pratique, un des plus précieux instruments de culture moderne."

The same report tells us that English as a school subject is threatened in Southern France by Spanish and Italian, especially the former, Southern Frenchmen finding the Romance languages easier than Northern tongues.

The Modern Language Exhibition is now open for inspection at Armstrong College, Newcastle, where the arrangements have been made by Mr. A. G. Latham. It will remain there till January 4, and will be next on view at the annual general meeting of the Association.

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The Committee on the Training of Modern Language Teaching held its first meeting at Queen's College, W., on Saturday, November 16, the Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University presiding. The next meeting will be held on Monday, January 6.

GOOD ARTICLES.

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, November, 1907: Compulsory Latin in Secondary Schools.

SCHOOL WORLD, November, 1907: A New Method of Awarding Scholarships (C. Brereton); Class-room Phonetics (H. O'Grady); Pupil Teachers and Continental Holiday Courses (L. C. Dudley).

EDUCATIONAL TIMES, November, 1907: Moral Education in Schools (H. Johnson).

SCHOOL, November, 1907: Ethical Teaching and English Literature (A. J. Spilsbury); An Incentive to Reading (C. J. Pugh).

A. M. A., October, 1907: The Position of the Schoolmaster under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906 (A. G. Rawlings).

LES LANGUES MODERNES, November, 1907: La Révolution française et les Poètes anglais (H. Dupré); Les Genres en Allemand.

BOLLETTINO DI FILOLOGIA MODERNA, October, 1907: Ciò che richiede il Metodo diretto (N. Morelli).

ZEITSCHRIFT FÜR DEN DEUTSCHEN UNTERRICHT, August, 1907: Die Bedeutung der Pädagogik Jean Pauls für die Gegenwart (W. Hoppe).

EDITORIAL NOTE.

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Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, 45, Ladbroke Grove, London, W. The Editor is assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of Messrs. R. H. Allpress, F. B. Kirkman, Miss Purdie, and Mr. A. A. Somerville.

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